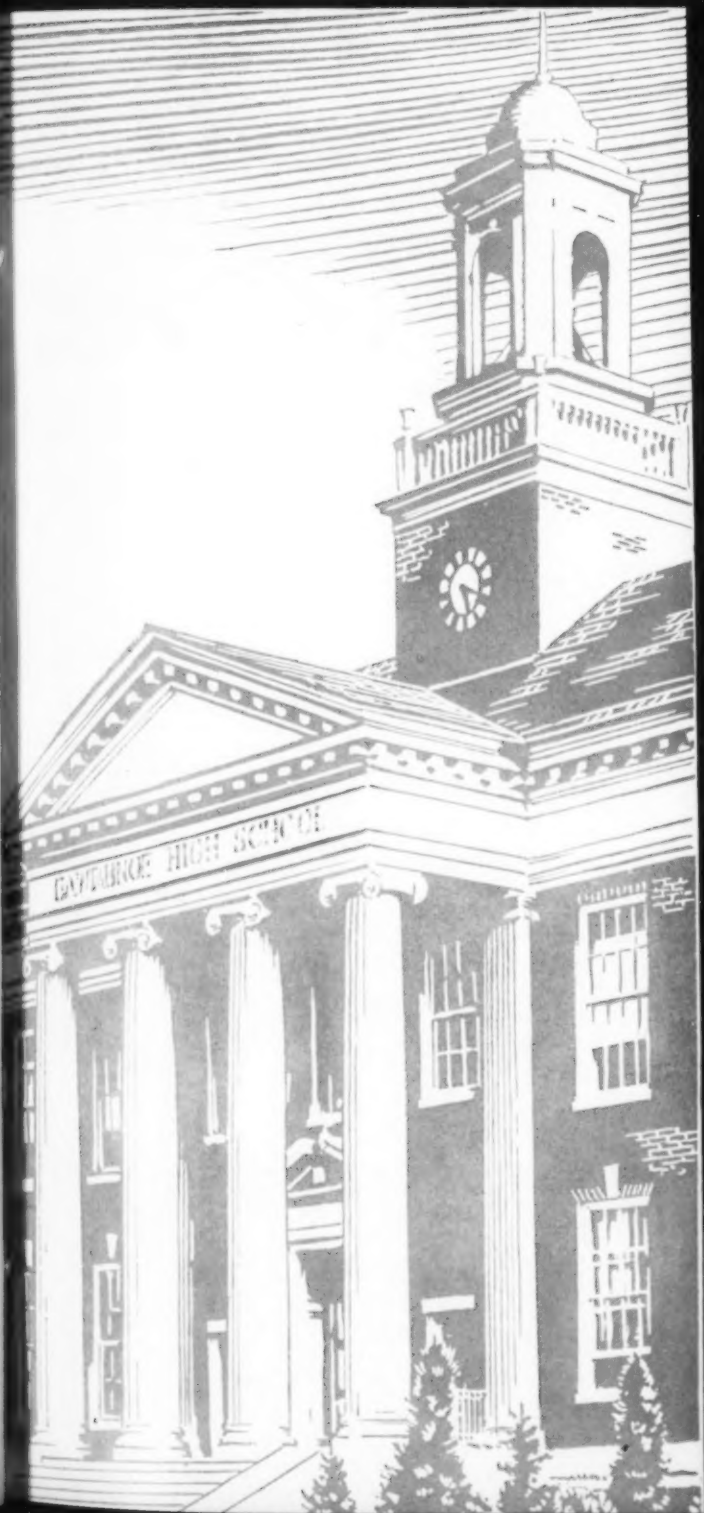


AUGUST, 1937

Vol. 95 No. 2

THE AMERICAN School Board Journal

A PERIODICAL *of* SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

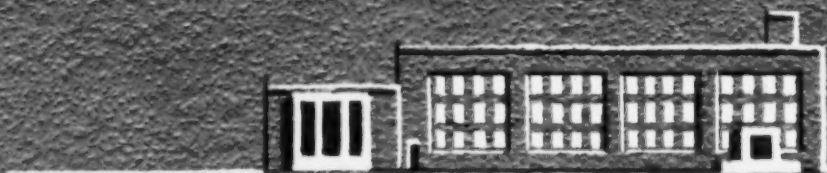
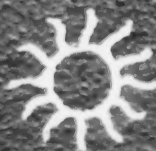


In this issue:

The "Problem" Teacher

— C. H. Margle

SUMMER



*The IDEAL TIME to check
the School Heating Plant*



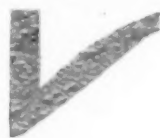
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AUGUST,
1937

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Table of Contents

| | |
|---|----|
| Cover: Paper Construction <i>Keystone View Photo</i> | |
| Cartoon: Not Wanted Here! | 17 |
| <i>John Knott</i> | |
| The Election | 18 |
| <i>C. O. Richardson</i> | |
| Medium-Size School Systems Are Better..... | 19 |
| <i>Norman Frost</i> | |
| The "Problem" Teacher..... | 21 |
| <i>C. H. Marple</i> | |
| The Community Teaches School..... | 23 |
| <i>Roberta LaBrant Green and George A. Swift</i> | |
| A Social-Studies Laboratory Built to Order..... | 25 |
| <i>J. W. Baldwin</i> | |
| Is the Workbook Really Worth While? | 27 |
| <i>Ira O. Scott</i> | |
| Self-Rating Scale for School-Board Members..... | 28 |
| The Administration of a Diagnostic and Remedial-Reading Program on the Elementary-School Level | 29 |
| <i>James A. Fitzgerald</i> | |
| The American State University..... | 31 |
| <i>Edward A. Fitzpatrick</i> | |
| "Shall Cause the Child to Attend School"..... | 33 |
| <i>Patrick Joseph Smith</i> | |
| Stokers Economize for Rockford Schools..... | 34 |
| <i>Hugh D. Tolmie</i> | |
| Contacts with Parents in a High-School Community..... | 37 |
| <i>Paul R. Pierce and John E. Klest</i> | |
| Bettering School Maintenance by Accounting..... | 39 |
| <i>Donald D. Cunliff</i> | |
| The Miami Beach Senior High School, Miami Beach, Florida..... | 41 |
| <i>Grace Brown</i> | |
| Responsible Bidders on School Contracts..... | 45 |
| The Auburn Senior High School..... | 46 |
| Personality in School Administration..... | 48 |
| Problems of Teacher Retirement..... | 49 |
| <i>T. T. Allen</i> | |
| Size and Tenure of School Boards..... | 50 |
| Individual Instruction Succeeds in Small School..... | 51 |
| <i>D. H. Martin and J. Howard Chevront</i> | |
| Fourteen Years' School Record in One Folder..... | 52 |
| <i>F. G. Macomber</i> | |
| PWA School Building in Minnesota..... | 56 |
| <i>George F. Hoppe</i> | |
| The N.E.A. in Detroit Discusses Teachers' Problems..... | 58 |
| Shall the School Boards Control Public Recreation?..... | 62 |
| Salary Schedules Which Incorporate Newer Ideas for Rewarding Merit.... | 74 |
| EDITORIALS: | |
| Interference with School-Administrative Authority..... | 54 |
| The Unofficial in School Administration..... | 54 |
| Electing County Superintendents on Partisan Lines..... | 55 |
| The Temperamental School-Board Member..... | 55 |
| School-Plant Maintenance and Vacation Months..... | 55 |
| School Law | 60 |
| School Board News | 63 |
| New Books | 65 |
| News of Superintendents | 68 |
| School Finance and Taxation.... | 72 |
| Teachers' Salaries | 76 |
| School Administration News | 77 |
| After the Meeting..... | 86 |
| School Buyers' News..... | 86 |



What About Streamlined Schools?

In an attempt at originality in headlines a newspaper editor recently spoke of "Streamlined Schools" and justified the designation by referring to the harmonious and efficient operation of the local school system.

The word "streamline" has found favor in describing graceful automobile designs, railroad trains, and airplanes. In applying the word to the schools it probably goes further than the mere matter of design and contemplates the elimination of needless delay and circumvention, and a more orderly and direct administration of school affairs.

There can be no doubt that the government of the schools has undergone the same degree of improvements and refinements that has applied to the field of industry and commerce. Short cuts have been the order of the day. Waste effort is eliminated. The utilitarian is sought. A calmer, more thoughtful, and more intelligent approach is recognized.

Thus the "streamline" idea may well be applied to the administration of a school system. In the instructional service there has been a constant aim to eliminate the superfluous and immaterial and attain objectives by more direct and intelligent effort. The administrative service likewise has eliminated the cumbersome, obstructive, and wasteful and striven toward the highest degree of efficiency combined with the greatest measure of economy. If streamline spells modernization, so be it!

THE EDITOR

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Editorial Material — Manuscripts and photographs bearing on school administration, superintendence, school architecture, and related topics are solicited, and will be paid for upon publication. Contributions should be mailed to Milwaukee direct, and should be accompanied by stamps for return, if unavailable. Open letters to the editor must in all cases contain the name and address of the writer, not necessarily for publication, but as evidence of good faith.

The contents of this issue are listed in the *Education Index*.

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*Winning
warm praise*
IN BAYONNE, N. J.

A view of the reading room of the new Bayonne, N. J. Senior High School Library. Miss Mary Ann Clark, Librarian; Fanning and Shaw, Architects.

WARM praise from hundreds of school patrons in Bayonne, N. J. bears out this fact—it pays to call in Library Bureau when your building plans are still in the blueprint stage.

The Gothic-style library in Bayonne's new \$1,700,000 Senior High School occupies 4500 square feet and seats 157 students. Stained glass medallions in the windows display the names of significant printers and book-

binders. Yet in this chapel-like room there is every modern improvement a school library should have.

All the equipment—including book shelves, charging desk, catalog cases, magazine racks, museum case and bulletin boards—was designed by Library Bureau and harmonizes perfectly with the architectural scheme.

Whatever type of school you're planning to build, Library Bureau

sees to it that no detail is overlooked. A complete planning service gives you more for your money . . . in lasting utility as well as in beauty of equipment.

Write to Library Bureau Division, Remington Rand Inc., Buffalo, N. Y. for full details.

A view of the reading room of the new Bayonne, N. J. Senior High School Library. Miss Mary Ann Clark, Librarian; Fanning and Shaw, Architects.

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Buffalo, N. Y.

THE AMERICAN School Board Journal

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August, 1937

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NOT WANTED HERE!

THE ELECTION

C. O. Richardson¹

It was corn-planting time.

The soft earth gave to the night air a fragrance that only the country-bred can know. The fields, freshly marceled by the listers, stretched away and were lost in the mists above the river. Along the road leading from Main Street to the Auburn Public School the leaves rustled sleepily.

A light in one window made the old schoolhouse loom black against the moonlit sky. This light was in the office, a narrow room with bookcases, a desk, and a long table about which lounged six men, the board of education who had met to elect a superintendent.

"If we're ever going to get our corn planted we'd better elect someone and stop this rush of applicants. I've been run ragged the past ten days," said Tom Merritt, president of the board.

Except for Merritt, each man seemed intent upon making a bigger cloud of smoke than his neighbor. Two drew at pipes, two puffed at cigarettes, while another chewed a long cigar. It was doubtful if any except perhaps the nonsmoker, Merritt, knew that a state law prohibited the use of tobacco in schoolhouses.

"Well, let's come to order and get it over with. Got anyone in mind?" asked the president.

For a moment no one spoke. Each drew stronger at pipe or cigaret as if keeping alive that fire was a sacred duty. But in each man's consciousness was the impression of one candidate he would stubbornly stick for until hope of election was gone. Yet no one wanted to speak first.

"Well, boys, I don't believe we can do better than Jones from Inavale," began Merritt. "He's had plenty of experience."

"He's all right," agreed Carl Anderson who always stood with Merritt.

"How much does he want?" asked Warner.

"The same as we paid last year."

"Seems like we might get a new man for a couple of hundred less," Warner objected.

"Jones is all right," admitted Ransom slowly. "But he's a little old. We need a younger man full of pep; someone like Belknap I had in mind."

"Or Fred Weeks; he looked good to me," said Guy Brown, merchant.

"Wasn't he the fellow with the long nose?" asked Amos Hampton. "The kids would have a lot of fun with him. There's enough good-looking men that we don't have to hire freaks. I'm in favor of good-looking teachers —"

"Especially lady teachers," interrupted Dan Criss.

"You said it," admitted Hampton frankly, "If there's anything I'd hate it

would be to sit all day looking at a face that would sour milk."

"Well, you don't have to go to school," Merritt reminded him.

"No, but I feel sorry for the kids."

"You can't always tell by looks," spoke up Lafe Simmons. "Good looks are all right but it's what you got back of 'em that counts. I'm for G. C. Bell."

As the names of favorite candidates were given, Secretary Brown separated their credentials from the pile on the table and handed them around to be studied. Then followed thirty minutes of paper reading, comments, questions, and parleying, varied by remarks about business or corn planting.

"It's getting late," said Merritt finally. "Shall we vote by ballot or voice?"

"Ballot."

A few minutes later Brown read the result of the first ballot: "Leech 2; Weeks 1; Belknap 1; Bell 1; Main 1."

"Looks like an all-night session," said Anderson, refilling his pipe.

"And me with a hundred acres of corn to plant yet," said Ransom.

"How's your wheat looking?" inquired Criss, the banker.

"Oh, it's a little short, but all right."

For another fifteen minutes agricultural topics were discussed, each telling what the others already knew; for in a small town and its rural adjuncts nothing can be concealed.

Meanwhile fifteen miles away on the highway an old car swayed and bounced as its driver urged it to its top speed. It was a Model T, without top, and with a floor board and one fender rattling. The driver was a young man of 24, bare-headed, keen-eyed, and eager. Though he urged the car to its limit, there was nothing reckless in his driving; when he met other cars he slowed up far to one side.

"Wonder if they've elected yet?" he thought. "It's after ten o'clock."

He was almost tempted to turn around and go back over the thirty miles he had come, but hope and curiosity kept him headed for Auburn. And as he drove, his thoughts roamed back over his four years in the State University; slaving for board and room; scrimping for books and supplies; harvesting in summer; and at last a senior, with a debt to be paid during the coming year. But jobs were scarce and hard to land; personal application was a necessity, and it cost money to travel by train and required precious time. He had offered to meet with several boards if they were interested in his credentials, but it seemed they never were interested. Late that afternoon he had heard of the vacancy in the Auburn superintendency, and at six o'clock he had started in a borrowed car hoping to make the 45 miles

by eight o'clock, the normal meeting time of all boards. But a flat tire and ignition trouble had delayed him until he despaired of getting there at all. It was foolish to go on; still there might be a chance.

"The fifth ballot shows Jones 2; Bell 2; Belknap 1 and Weeks 1," announced Brown. "Looks as if we might as well adjourn and think it over a few days."

"Here comes a car hell-bent for election — or a motorcycle," said Criss, standing at the window.

The clock on the wall showed through a blue haze of smoke fifteen minutes past ten.

"Five bells comes pretty soon," said Hampton, glancing at the timepiece.

"He's coming here," said Criss, "Just turned in the drive."

"Let's go home," suggested Anderson.

"Oh, wait a minute and see what he wants." Secretary Brown began to gather up the papers and pictures, while the others again lighted their pipes and cigarets. A moment later the car stopped in the yard.

"A Model T," said Merritt.

Quick steps pounded the sidewalk, the front door opened, and footsteps came up the stairs and along the hallway to the office. Then Ben Thompson stood blinking in the doorway.

"Good evening, gentlemen. Am I too late?"

He was conscious of six pairs of eyes regarding him, and he wondered if his hair was combed. It wasn't; the wind had seen to that. He wondered if his hands were clean. They weren't; the timing gear had left its imprint despite vigorous rubbing on a handkerchief. He wondered if he was a fool for coming so late.

"Too late for what?" asked Merritt, a shade of a smile showing on his mouth.

"I started out to apply for your job of superintendent," began Thompson, and won Ransom's vote because he said job rather than position. "I didn't know it was open till this afternoon and couldn't leave before six o'clock. Then I borrowed a Model-T Packard and had a flat tire and ignition trouble and — well, you see the result." He spread out his hands and shook his tousled head and smiled; and that smile and gesture won friends.

"Why couldn't you leave before six?" inquired Merritt.

"I'm working and didn't have time to get a sub. I couldn't run out on the boss where I've worked two years."

"Working your way through school?" asked Brown.

"Yes," said Thompson. "I've worked the past four years. I'm graduating next week. Maybe you'd like to know something about me," he added, smiling again and coming closer to the table. "My name is Benjamin Thompson, home in western part of the state. Will have a degree next week, and I have taught country school two years. Doesn't sound as if it's very much experience and so forth, but —"

(Concluded on page 85)

¹Swanton, Nebraska.

Medium-Size School Systems Are Better

Norman Frost¹

Should the county be the unit for local school administration? Should cities have school systems independent of county systems? If so, how large, or how small, should a city be that has an independent school system? Should counties be combined or consolidated for school purposes into larger systems of schools?

Answers to such questions should be based in part, at least, on the cost and efficiency of systems of different sizes. The following specific questions seem of importance:

1. What is the most economical size for school systems?

2. What size of school system is most efficient?

3. What size of school system can best provide the services expected of modern schools?

Size of school systems is taken to refer to the number of children enrolled. Land area, wealth, number of teachers or total population are possible measures, but the service of schools is eventually to individual children. Economy, efficiency, types of educational service, even the curricular offerings, must be in reference to children. Therefore, size is measured by the number of children enrolled.

It is only recently that area and wealth have ceased to be dominant factors in determining size. They are still of importance, but not of dominant importance. Transportation makes distant schools accessible; even for the most remote school the distance from the highway is what matters most. Modern school finance with special grants, equalizing funds, and state support of essential programs has made local wealth of less importance than formerly. The principle of getting money where it is to educate children where they are has left children as the determining factor in school administration. If there are enough children to make a good school system, money must be provided by state or nation to supplement what is available locally.

It must be borne in mind that a school system is more than an attendance unit, or an individual school. A city or county may have a distinct system of schools, may be an administration unit for school control. At the same time it may have, indeed it is likely to have, a number of elementary, high, and special schools. The size and location of these are determined by the administrative control quite apart from the size of the separate schools which may go to make up the system.

1

What is the most economical size for school systems?

¹Professor of Rural Education, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee.

This question has been approached most frequently from the standpoint of total schools costs, sometimes of total costs of government. Covert² cites a number of specific studies showing the general economy of large systems as opposed to smaller ones. The following statements are typical:

A study by Hicks of governmental units in Illinois shows per capita cost of government in eleven counties under county organization to be \$1.84 as compared with similar costs of \$3.83 in seven counties under township organization. He states further that "so far as can be observed by anyone who visits counties where the county organization has been established, local government is as efficient and as effective as in counties where the township organization prevails."³

Superintendent Calvin Ennes in discussing a proposed county unit law for Michigan says: "The savings in officers' salaries and fuel and other school supplies in 83 counties under a county unit system would amount to millions in a very short time."⁴

The same idea of general economy is expressed in a statement from the 1933 report of the Oregon Taxpayers' Equalization and Conservation League: "From our study, these larger districts would make very substantial savings possible without in any way crippling the schools." Reduction in per-pupil cost of schools from 1921-22 under the district system to 1931-32 under the county system is given as "\$24.30 in Crook County and as \$30.96 in Klamath County."⁵

George R. Cressman in a study of local units of school administration in Pennsylvania specifies the points at which savings might be effected in that state: "Gross cost elimination made possible by the county administration and financing of education would be effected in (1) salaries of school-board secretaries, (2) the salaries of treasurers, (3) the cost of

auditors' services, (4) the cost of tax collection, and (5) interest on temporary loans due to lack of professional oversight of finance."⁶ The first three of these items, salaries of school-board secretaries, salaries of treasurers, and the cost of auditors' services, are among those usually charged to general control in the school budget. The fourth considered a current school cost, while the fifth, interest on temporary loans, is charged as a debt service.

In Tennessee data was gathered bearing directly on the per-pupil cost of general control in county and independent districts of different sizes (Table I). Counties having 7,000 to 8,000 scholastics show the lowest per-pupil cost, increasing as the counties become larger or smaller. Apparently counties can be too large as well as too small for economy of general control.

For the independent districts the same situation is shown, save that the greatest economy is in districts having 4,000 to 5,000 scholastics.

This data is not from a wide enough territory to be in any sense conclusive. It does indicate a possibility, even a probability, that school systems can be too large for economy in operation as well as too small.

The general conclusion seems justified that small school systems are expensive to operate. The data from Tennessee indicates further that unduly large systems are also expensive to operate.

Medium-size school systems (4,000 to 8,000 scholastics) cost less to administer.

2

What size of school system is most efficient?

It is surprising that this question has been so seldom approached. There is considerable data concerning schools of different sizes, not well assembled, nor very conclusive beyond the rather complete evidence that one- and two-teacher schools are less efficient than larger ones.

²*Ibid.*, p. 19.

³This table is based upon records in the State Department of Education.

TABLE I. Cost of General Control in County and Independent Districts, Tennessee, 1931-32*

| Number of Scholastics 6 to 17 | Number of Systems | Counties Per-Pupil Cost of General Control | Rank in Economy of School Administration | Independent Districts | |
|----------------------------------|-------------------|---|--|-----------------------|--------|
| | | | | (as for Counties) | |
| Under 1,000 | 0 | | | 27 | \$2.06 |
| 1,000-2,000 | 10 | \$1.71 | 8 | 15 | 1.86 |
| 2,000-3,000 | 13 | 1.33 | 5 | 3 | 1.99 |
| 3,000-4,000 | 22 | 1.21 | 4 | 2 | 1.93 |
| 4,000-5,000 | 10 | 1.38 | 6 | 2 | .80 |
| 5,000-6,000 | 16 | 1.11 | 3 | 0 | — |
| 6,000-7,000 | 9 | .99 | 2 | 0 | — |
| 7,000-8,000 | 6 | .84 | 1 | 0 | — |
| 8,000-and over | 9 | 1.49 | 7 | 4 | 1.05 |
| Total | 95 | \$1.23 | | 53 | |

From the rather limited viewpoint of achievement-test results, there is considerable data showing that country schools are not so efficient as city schools, and some comparisons of achievement in cities of different sizes. The Mississippi study by O'Shea is typical, though it differs from most such studies in that a specific comparison of different sized systems is made.⁷

The educational ages of children in the respective grades are reported from cities of over 10,000, cities of 2,500 to 9,999, and from places below 2,500 population. Medians, for eighth grades calculated from the reports for these systems are 173.5 for the large cities, 181 for the small cities, and 156.5 for places below 2,500. In this grade, as in most others, the medium-size systems show superior results. The same situation is quite general in the analysis of results by subjects. The statement is made that "comparing communities grouped according to population, it is found that pupils in communities between 2,500 and 10,000 populations, taken together, are in the lead."⁸

Similar data are given in many of the state surveys. Further citation would be a weariness of the flesh.

Some Efficiency Measures

To find whether the same situation exists among county systems of different sizes a study was made of the efficiency of counties and of four independent districts in Tennessee. Efficiency was measured by an index based upon the following factors and assumptions:

1. *Attendance.* The greater the proportion of children attending school, the more efficient the system.

2. *Experience of Elementary Teachers.* The more the experience of the elementary teachers the better the system.

3. *Experience of High-School Teachers.* The more the experience of the high-school teachers the better the system.

4. *Training of Elementary Teachers.* The greater the proportion of elementary teachers who have had two years or more of college training the more efficient the schools.

5. *Training of High-School Teachers.* The greater the proportion of high-school teachers who have had four years or more of college training the more efficient the schools.

⁷M. N. O'Shea, *A State Educational System at Work*.
⁸*Ibid.*, pp. 314, 334.

6. Holding Power of the Elementary



Mr. Raymond E. Fildes
Superintendent of Schools,
Springfield, Illinois

Mr. Fildes, who succeeded the late William J. Lowry on July 1 as superintendent of city schools, has been principal of the Hay-Edwards School since 1924. He is a past president of the south central division of the Illinois Educational Association.

Schools. The larger the proportion of primary children (2nd grade) who reach the grammar grades (7th grade), the better.

7. *Holding Power of High Schools.* The larger the proportion of high-school entrants (9th grade) who reach the senior year (12th grade), the better.

8. *Elementary-School Teaching Situation.* The greater the value of elementary-school property per elementary-school child, the better the situation.

9. *High-School Teaching Situation.* The greater the value of high-school property per high-school pupil, the better the situation.

10. *Literacy of Scholastics, 10-17 inclusive.* The greater the proportion of children between the ages of 10 and 17 who can read, the better the schools which trained them.

All available data were collected from both county and independent districts. The districts were grouped according to size, and each group was ranked for each factor considered, one being best, two next best, and so on. Then the sum of all rankings assigned each group of districts

was found, and on its basis a composite efficiency rank was found for each group of districts.

It is recognized that the composite efficiency ranking based on the assumption of equal significance of the factors considered is far from valid. However, a system of weighting the factors for the county systems, based on the opinions of four graduate students, resulted in only two displacements of one-half place each, the ranks three and four each becoming three and one half. In the case of the independent districts there were no displacements (see Table II).

Schools of Medium Size Are Efficient

The general tendency for the larger districts to have more efficient schools, both among county districts and among independent districts, is quite clear. There are eight groups of county districts. The sum of the rankings of the four groups having more than 5,000 children is only 13, while the similar sum for the four districts having less than 5,000 children is 23. The small number of cases among independent districts makes the results there somewhat questionable, but the same type of situation exists. Among the six groups of independent districts the rankings of the three having more than 3,000 children total six as against 15 for the groups having smaller numbers of children.

The independent districts show the same tendency found in Mississippi, for efficiency to increase up to a certain size, and then to decrease. The county systems show no such tendency.

The tendency for larger systems to have more efficient schools is so marked that it seems quite unlikely that different tendencies would be shown if other measures of efficiency were used, or if more systems were included.

Larger school systems are more effective in educating children. In independent city systems the effectiveness seems to be somewhat less when the number of pupils exceeds 8,000. This tendency does not hold for county systems.

(To be concluded)

SCHOOL-BUILDING CONSTRUCTION

During the month of June, contracts were let for 18 new school buildings in 11 states west of the Rockies, at a total contract price of \$830,300. School projects in initial stages of development were reported in the number of 36 at an anticipated outlay of \$1,714,600.

During the first six months of 1937, in these western states, 100 school-building projects were reported, at a total cost of \$6,742,900.

During the month of June, Dodge reported contracts let for 296 school and college buildings, to cost \$26,307,400. During the same period, 33 contracts were let for libraries and laboratories, to cost \$10,551,500, and for 22 gymnasiums, to cost \$533,000.

SCHOOL BONDS

During the month of June, school bonds in the sum of \$5,852,581 were sold, at an average interest rate of 3.06 per cent. In addition, short-term notes, tax-anticipation notes, and refunding bonds were sold in the amount of \$1,503,000.

TABLE II. Rank of School Systems of Different Size in Certain Factors Contributing to Efficiency, Tennessee, 1931-1932

| Number of Scholastics 6 to 17 | County Systems | | | Independent Districts | | |
|-------------------------------|-------------------|------------------|----------------|-----------------------|------------------|----------------|
| | Number of Systems | Total of Ranking | Composite Rank | Number of Systems | Total of Ranking | Composite Rank |
| Under 1,000 | | | | 27 | 37 | 4 |
| 1,000-2,000 | 10 | 63.5 | 8 | 15 | 39 | 5 |
| 2,000-3,000 | 13 | 35 | 2 | 3 | 40 | 6 |
| 3,000-4,000 | 22 | 53.5 | 7 | 2 | 33 | 3 |
| 4,000-5,000 | 10 | 51 | 6 | 2 | 24 | 1 |
| 5,000-6,000 | 16 | 46 | 5 | — | — | — |
| 6,000-7,000 | 9 | 42 | 3.5 | — | — | — |
| 7,000-8,000 | 6 | 42 | 3.5 | — | — | — |
| 8,000 and over | 9 | 27 | 1 | 4 | 27 | 2 |

The "Problem" Teacher

C. H. Marple¹

The "problem" child has been categorized, discussed, and analyzed from every possible angle in educational literature. But little has been written on the "problem" teacher. With human nature as it is, and with personality differences as pronounced and deepseated as they are, no person familiar with the processes of school administration, and more particularly personnel administration, will deny that the problem teacher does exist. Many a supervisor has found his efforts toward effective improvement blocked by various types of teacher incompetency.

Many problem teachers have been employed in the service of education as a result of faulty criteria in selecting teacher personnel. Many a superintendent upon coming to a new community finds the schools literally "filled" with teachers selected almost wholly because they were "local" candidates, and with no particular regard for their personal and professional fitness. Many school systems select all their teachers, or almost all, from the local community where they are to teach. Such practice obviously restricts tremendously the use of merit as a criterion. Many teachers come to their positions through the influence of friends or political persuasion with all the sinister implications such a policy portends. Any community which selects teachers on any basis other than merit thereby does violence to its solemn responsibility.

Another factor which makes its contribution in explaining the presence of the teacher misfit is the occasional miscarriage of judgment on the part of superintendents and school boards. Present-day techniques for evaluating personality are not sufficiently objective or scientized to assure a correct appraisal of candidates by employing officials. Hence occasional "white elephants" find their way into the employ of the school. This danger is being rapidly eliminated as more progressive communities set up effective machinery to assure the selection of competent teachers. The responsibilities of the director of personnel are assuming an enlarged importance. An exhaustive analysis of qualifications, both personal and professional, is becoming more common, and includes intelligence, pedagogical, psychological, health, avocational, and aptitude examinations.

Still other problem teachers have been employed through dishonest testimonials. Commercial teachers' agencies have not stood alone in the misrepresentation of qualities and abilities. The fact is that the vast majority of teachers' agencies today maintain a high degree of integrity in the representations they offer concerning

their nominees for school positions. Unfortunately many school officials have occasioned a questioning of their integrity by offering testimonials of a misleading type. It is indeed a sad commentary that some superintendents feel obliged to evaluate letters of recommendations from certain other school officials with the proverbial "grain of salt." Unethical misrepresentations have contributed in no small measure to the common practice of requiring personal applications before candidates are even considered. Some superintendents, unfortunately, have been known to overstate the abilities of a teacher in order to get rid of her.

Let the Superintendent Select Teachers

A final consideration is the failure to recognize the province and function of the superintendent in personnel administration. The current pattern in American education is to place the authority for selecting and dismissing teachers in the hands of the superintendent. This is as it should be. Since he is held responsible for the instructional program of his schools, he certainly should be granted the inviolate right to name his teachers. Consistency and fairness demand that this function be his, and his alone. The day when school-board members "nominate" candidates in competition with those presented by the superintendent is surely passing, and should be relegated forever to the past. The superintendent is responsible for the assignment of teachers, the supervision of instruction, teaching results, growth in service, school morale, and the stimulation of professional outlook. His case is utterly hopeless if the school board imposes upon him the untenable policy of interfering with the naming of his teachers. If he is not qualified to select his teachers wisely, he is not qualified to be superintendent.

The fact that we have "problem" teachers does not mean that we do not have "problem" superintendents, principals, and even school boards. Nor is this paper an indictment of teachers as such. The reverse is the case. Certainly only a small proportion of teachers come under the types here listed. This statement on the negative aspects of teacher qualities must not obscure the fact that the preponderance of American public-school teachers are rendering truly meritorious service to their generation. Their contribution to social values is auspicious, and they merit our respect, admiration, and appreciation. As a group they are faithful, sacrificing, competent. They are doing a truly creditable job of directing the youth of today toward tomorrow's tasks.

No school is stronger than its teachers. Their spirit, loyalty, earnestness, and ability determine success or failure for the program of the supervisor. The "problem" teacher disheartens her coworkers, restricts school progress, decreases efficiency, and destroys school morale. She challenges the skill, judgment, and at times the patience of her supervisors. Most supervisors want to help their teachers grow in service, and will do everything possible to lead them toward an effective adjustment. Therefore many teachers with pronounced limitations are able with helpful, appreciative guidance to achieve a superior rating. The teacher must, however, recognize her limitations and co-operate toward self-improvement. The adoption of an attitude of complacency, or a technique of justifications makes constructive help impossible.

Following are a few "problem" teacher types:

She Talks Too Much

A. The *Loquacious Teacher* is an undisciplined personality which brings constant trouble to herself and superiors. In the classroom her garrulity makes her a pathetic figure. Her tongue never ceases. Faulty classroom technique, or a genuine lack of teaching skill frequently find compensation through the ceaseless monotony of her voice. Her students cannot think because of her propensity to talk. A schoolgirl recently said to the writer, "I just don't seem to be able to think in school because my teacher talks all the time." Her loquacity is apt to assume rude and unwonted forms. Usually she is a "poor" listener. Conversations with her are one-sided. She is prone to scold her students for not achieving, when her talkativeness made it impossible for them to achieve.

Outside the school her overexpressive proclivities take the form of garrulity. She inclines to impart facts and information which properly concern only her and her school associates. Community gossip and criticism concerning school affairs and personalities too frequently have their origin here. There seems to be something of a drive leading people to impart what they know. But a teacher's loyalty to her institution and to the dignity of her profession should lead her to achieve the superlative grace of controlling her tongue. She may have good intentions, but the teacher afflicted with loquacity is apt to find her weakness aggravated with the passing years. Teachers so afflicted must be dealt with sternly.

B. The *Non-Co-operative Teacher* tends to be an individualist. She is apt

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to be the complaining, self-pitying, self-martyr type familiarly known by her, "I don't like to complain, but . . ." Not only does she refuse to assume willingly her share of responsibility, but oftentimes is perfectly willing to shift responsibility even for her own group. She does not willingly share with others, and is stubborn about making concessions in the interest of group efficiency. She is critical of her fellows for their co-operation, and resents the necessity of making adjustments which in any way disturb her decorum of procedure. This type of teacher seldom "volunteers" for special services or duties.

In group discussions she assumes either the attitude of sullen negativism, or aggressively adopts the "Farmer Corn-tassel" philosophy of being "agin it" merely because somebody else is for it. Diagnosis of her case may reveal the existence of some thwarted drive or hope in her past, or it may be a case of professional jealousy, or, again it may be low social intelligence. Her efforts to thwart effective school administration are oftentimes insidious. She may give tacit agreement to policies instituted and technical co-operation in carrying out instructions; but at heart she is non-co-operative. She urges her point of disagreement beyond reasonable limit and sometimes prides herself in being a nonconformist. Her associates do not trust her. Such a teacher constitutes a genuine administrative problem, and her dismissal is frequently the only solution.

She Lacks Graciousness

C. The *Discourteous Teacher* is a contortionist of the good graces of life. Discourteous herself, she is likely to be most persistent in exacting the utmost in courtesy from others, particularly her students. With current stress on manners, the matter of social courtesy is receiving considerable attention. Certainly the teacher, as a teacher, cannot avoid the responsibility of exemplifying the highest form of this social grace. The teacher's graciousness is brought under constant test as she directs a group discussion, or supervises by indirection, a discussion in charge of other leaders. Undue digressions may be halted and discussions interrupted with good grace and without offense, but not without the exercise of an ingenious skill. Not only is the teacher obligated to be an example in the common courtesies, but her responsibility in imparting complaisance as basic to behavior is clear.

Some teachers are wholly intolerant of any questioning of their personal opinions. They do not want to raise questions, they want to settle them. They resent any challenge or questioning as to the propriety or correctness of their viewpoint. They teach **WHAT**, not **HOW** to think. "This is so because I say so," is their authority. The student who is persuaded that the teacher's position is untenable is told to "shut up." Usually the discour-

teous teacher can be helped to correct her fault.

D. The *Conventional Teacher's* professional comprehension is outlined in terms of what was thought and done a quarter of a century ago. She is not aggressively open to new ideas or improved techniques, and has lost that "ceaseless urge" for professional betterment. She may do substantial work after a fashion, but is not alert to fundamental trends and changes as these affect her own responsibilities. Her complacency is hard to disturb. She does not accept the idea that constant growth is the secret to continued success in the light of changing needs and new emphases. Her outlook is toward the past. She claims to be progressive, but any change of method, or new approach is the result of urging and persuasion. The "new" does not appeal to her.

The conventional teacher is more concerned with what the student does to subject matter than she is with what she and subject matter do to the child. Her students conform, memorize; but there is not that elusive skill in which the teacher falls into the background, pushing student spontaneity and initiative into the foreground. The traditional teacher holds the center of the stage. All else revolves about her. She is the master of the classroom situation, dominating every activity. All is ordered, organized, motivated about the teacher, by the teacher, and pretty largely for the teacher. Superficially her classroom appears impressive; but a scientific analysis of what is happening to her students should quickly relegate her and her kind into phases of memory.

Her IQ Was Eighty

E. The *Non-Adaptive Teacher* is the one whose social, abstract, or mechanical intelligence is too low to make possible effective adaptations in her work. The writer administered several individual intelligence tests a few years ago to a teacher, at her request. The results indicated that her upper informational range was about at fifth-grade level. Her IQ, whatever that may or may not mean, was in the vicinity of 80. Problems for the ninth year in chronological age were beyond her comprehension. In a recent humorous radio broadcast, a young man of seventeen years pleaded with his teacher to promote him to the third grade. Said he, "Teacher, I have been in the second grade now for ten years. I want to enter the third grade." The teacher replied, "Sam, I cannot take you beyond the second grade, for I have never gone beyond the second grade myself."

Fortunately it is seldom that teachers of very low ability are found in the service of the schools. But almost every administrator has had to deal with cases of this description. The achievements of this type of teacher are pathetically inadequate, and the hopelessness of the situation is accentuated when such a teacher is incapable of comprehending her own

incompetency. Such is generally the case. Such teachers are employed because of the confusion existing in the field of mental ability analysis. One may possess excellent poise, and a high degree of sociability, yet be a moron in abstract intelligence. All a supervisor can do with a mental incompetent is to exercise patience, use praise when work can be commended, and wish that nature had been more generous.

F. The *Emotional Teacher* who dramatizes periodic displays of extreme temperament was the original nightmare of school administrators. Emotional infantilism is in bad taste anywhere, any time, and particularly before a group of children. For any teacher to stage a "temper tantrum" before her class, no matter what the provocation, is but to reflect ignominy upon her profession. An incident is recalled. A recalcitrant boy was brought to the office by his teacher who scolded him soundly for losing his temper. The use of reason enabled the child to make a nice adjustment. But only a few days later this same teacher flew into a rage over a case of inattention, slapped the subject with a book, and kicked him from his seat. Only the appearance of the principal was able to bring a return to decorum. Lack of emotional maturity frequently leads to maladjustments calling for administrative solution.

The emotionally madadjusted teacher frequently becomes opprobrious toward her coworkers, school patrons, and her supervisors. She may resort to hatred, unkindness, vituperation. A case is brought to mind in which two teachers worked in the same building for about four years without speaking. Too many teachers lack patience with parents whose inquiries may not always be accompanied with what the teacher expects in propriety. The teacher is a public servant, paid by taxation. In all public relations she must remain master of her own emotions. Impetuosity is far below reasoned analysis on the scale of social adjustment, and it is simply inexcusable on the part of any teacher.

Honesty in the Teacher

G. The *Dishonest Teacher* is a distinct problem type. Frequently she is one who has rationalized so much in self-defense or justification that she is no longer capable of accurate representation. Her weakness is a purely personal one, and is apt to be compensatory in character. Frequently she gets into difficulty due to an immoderate loquacity, and her escape is sought by calling her accuser a "liar." She cleverly misrepresents actual occurrences rather than face a situation frankly and honestly. It is indeed a most unfortunate situation when an administrator feels impelled to question the veracity of a teacher. Such cases are quite rare.

Another expression of dishonesty concerns the teacher's attitude toward her range of information. When her specific information proves inadequate for a given

development, instead of frankly admitting that she does not know, she evades the issue, "scolds" the student for asking such an impertinent question, derides him for not already knowing anything so utterly obvious, or "pulls" the bluff by deftly assigning a "committee" to look it up for next time. In any event she surely and quickly loses the respect of the group. It might be suggested that students be sometimes permitted to use lie detectors. The dishonest teacher may be contrasted with the teacher heard the other day by the writer. When unable to answer a certain question, he said, "I do not know, but I do know where to find out. I'll look it up for next time." This teacher at once commanded my complete admiration, and his students have utter confidence in his integrity. Intellectual honesty is requisite to a teacher's equipment for effective work.

H. The *Academic Incompetent* can oftentimes be helped toward success but only to the degree that she is aware of her scholastic weakness and will use every opportunity to broaden her preparation. Too frequently her preparation is faulty, not through any choice of her own, but because of the requirements of superintendents and school boards. For example, many school systems have, in the past, recruited their teachers solely from teacher-training institutions. And unfortunately many teacher-training institutions have offered schedules of courses totally inadequate for the needs of public education. The typical teacher-training institution of a quarter of a century ago gave pronounced emphasis to "methods," and various tricks and devices which were presumed to make good teachers. Only

incidental was the interest in developing broad backgrounds. Instead of teaching the significance of subject matter, numerous courses were offered in a detailed study of subject matter itself. Little or no attention was given to a study of social, economic, and governmental problems and processes. Give me a teacher who knows WHAT to teach in terms of social change, and I'll assume full responsibility for the use of proper methods. Even today many school systems prefer to select their teachers from institutions offering two years of normal-school training in preference to college or university graduates from state institutions. And fortunately many teacher-training institutions are broadening their curriculums so as to assure a more adequate preparation in their graduates.

An extreme case may be cited: The writer not long since heard a teacher relate to her class how society imprisoned criminals and exacted the death penalty in "revenge" for their crimes. It was discovered that this teacher had never had a course in sociology. She had accumulated more than a dozen notebooks of outlines, methods, and suggestions from two full years and about ten subsequent summers in normal school. When her lack of cultural education was called to her attention, she replied, "Why I'm interested only in methods. I'm a teacher." A public-school teacher needs a broad, diversified training. Under competent supervision a teacher's training in methods may be treated as purely incidental. Frequently the less she knows about methods, the more promise there is of making her into a really superior teacher. A teacher who

knows only methods, but with no background on current affairs and the significant movements of the day, imposes on her superiors the collegiate function. They must teach her to teach.

The Worst Type: The Disloyal Teacher

I. The *Disloyal Teacher's* only satisfaction is the scope of her own infamy and unworthiness. She destroys confidence and violates every essential principle of co-operative effort. Certainly professional loyalty should head the list of qualifications in employing or dismissing teachers. Under the caption, "Horse Sense," Elbert Hubbard said, "If you work for a man, in Heaven's name, work for him. If he pays wages that supply you bread and butter, work for him, speak well of him, think well of him, stand by him, and stand by the institution he represents. I would give an undivided service or none. If put to the pinch, an ounce of loyalty is worth a pound of cleverness. If you must vilify, condemn, and eternally disparage, why, resign your position, and when you are outside, damn to your heart's content. But I pray you, so long as you are part of an institution, do not condemn it. Not that you will injure the institution—not that—but when you disparage the concern of which you are a part, you disparage yourself."

For any teacher to display an attitude of disloyalty toward her superiors and co-workers is but to vilify her prestige and to violate the dignity of her job. All her other commendable qualities, no matter how excellent, are valueless unless she possesses an unquestioned loyalty.

The Community Teaches School

Roberta LaBrant Green and George A. Swift¹

Current accounts of educational beliefs and practices generally indicate a consciousness that merely passing on the old to a new generation is no longer the main function of education. What was good enough for the grandfather is no longer considered good enough for the father, to say nothing of the son. There is a growing awareness that the generation now in school must develop clearer thinking, better social understanding, and greater responsibility than did the generations of their fathers and their grandfathers.

Perhaps the first to realize this were the teachers and administrators, but individual parents, boards of education, and whole communities have been quick to see the need. No one yet has the complete answer to the question, "What education

is best for our children?"; but some real progress has been made and more is sure to follow. If a better kind of education is to be achieved, one of its requisites is that it must relate to the child's actual living. What he learns in school must connect with what he does outside of school—with the people he sees and talks to, with the surroundings in which he lives, and with the activities in which he engages.

Many schools are attempting to build their curriculums and activities first into the life of the community, present, past, and future; and from that into increasingly larger units, ending ideally with a community of world scope. In a democracy there is little quarrel with such a plan. The difficulty lies not with the purpose, but with the limitations of the school. A certain amount of teaching to develop a sense of relationships the school

can do, provided the community does not interfere; but the school needs the active help of adults not officially connected with it. There are certain phases of education that a school alone can never accomplish.

Perhaps the commonest kind of such assistance is that of making students welcome when they wish to visit local industries. In the small town in which the writers work there is scarcely an industry, a private office, or a public bureau that has not been visited by students from various grade levels within the past two years. Without exception children have been made most welcome and have been shown every courtesy. On more than one occasion when it became known that a group was making some particular kind of study, an invitation to visit has been extended by a firm that had some contribution to make.

Recently ten juniors were making a

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trip to a large city some distance away, for purposes connected with the school. They were to have two days to spend in the city in whatever manner would be most desirable. From adults in the town came most helpful advice. A harness maker sent them the following message; "You must go down to the river, see the wharf, the levee, and the big bridge. Walk over the bridge. It will cost five cents toll and will take an hour, but you'll not get the 'feel' of it until you put foot on it." Another said, "See the slums and the way the poor of a city live. It's different from out here." A third, Mr. B., suggested that the students go through a large factory, so they would actually see what mass production is. When it was decided that this was one thing the students would do, by long distance Mr. B. made the arrangements with the manager of one of the largest factories in the city. After visiting every part of the plant, the children, as guests of the manager and two employees, for three hours visited other places of interest in the city they had agreed upon, among them the wharf, levee, bridge, slums, and housing projects suggested by their friends at home.

Those men participating in planning and arranging for the trip, as well as those actually taking the students to the places of interest, did so because they recognized in these experiences real education. Without their help the trip would have missed much value. On their return, the children were asked to meet with two large local groups to discuss their experiences. Thus again between the school and the community grew understanding.

The pupils of a first-grade class were basing their activities around the home. The term *living room* seemed to be used rather peculiarly by some of the youngsters. Questioning revealed that for a surprisingly large number the word meant a room where the family ate, cooked, slept, dressed, washed, and so "lived." Other concepts of a home were correspondingly limited. The school had no model house for a laboratory, and the teacher did not have access to a home where she might take the children for first-hand investigation. Then an elderly woman, who lived in a comfortable, modern home, not too elaborate, learned of the situation. She invited the teacher to bring the entire group to her home to learn what they wanted to know.

A few days later twenty-two first graders with their room teacher and art teacher presented themselves at her door, were invited in, and given the run of the cottage, from basement to attic. They opened drawers and cupboards to see where all sorts of things were kept; they examined the furnace, the refrigerator, clothes closets, the bathroom, the gas range, the hot-water heater, the book shelves, the upholstery on the furniture, the rugs, the laundry facilities—in fact, everything that inquiring six-year-olds could find interest in. The hostess and the

two teachers spent nearly two hours answering questions and helping the children to understand.

When they went back to their own school, where they were trying to build their own "home," their minds were bursting with ideas. Again—the lady whose house they had examined, while she had enjoyed having her little visitors, had really invited them because she recognized this as a learning experience which the school could not give.

Recently there came to a large paint and glass factory in a Midwestern city a letter from a sixth-grade lad in New England, asking if information concerning the manufacturing of glass might be sent him. The letter was put into the hands of one of the firm's executives. The material the boy asked for was hard to find, but this man knew of a small book, no longer in print, that was simple enough for the boy to understand and excellent in explanations and illustrations. From a busy afternoon in a rush season the man took time to locate a copy of the book and have it sent to the boy. Then he dictated a long letter to the lad to supplement the information the book gave.

Two years ago a ninth-grade class, in a study of housing, made a survey of the housing situation in their own town. At the same time they wished to know what cities were doing for slum clearance. Letters were sent to mayors in forty cities of the United States asking for information. Almost without exception officials made reply, a few merely by sending printed reports, but many by writing at length. A number expressed interest in what the students were finding in their own town and asked for a report about the local situation when the study was completed. Information has been exchanged, and students continue to receive reports of progress in slum clearance from a number of cities. When the local survey was completed a group of business men

asked the children to meet with them to discuss their findings and to suggest possible causes and plans for improving the situation. As in the previous instances, this learning experience could not have been had without help from outside the school.

When an eighth-grade mathematics class and their teacher of the present year became dissatisfied with the kind of experiences the conventional textbook provided, they decided to base further study upon mathematical problems and relationships existing in the community. Headed by a boy whose father operates a large dairy, one group sought to know problems back of the dairyman's question of how much to charge for milk and cream. They needed the assistance of the dairyman, who helped them understand what things were involved in answering the final questions. Other groups, who chose various types of business and problems of the home, found the same kind of help available from other sources.

Most small towns have limited city library funds and a none-too-adequate school library. Often the best books of the school are locked up during the summer months when time for leisure reading is most abundant, and not infrequently reference books in the city library are required to stay on the shelves there, when they are really needed for certain groups within the school. One town has increased the efficiency of both libraries by permitting city-library reference books in quantity to be transferred to the school for the time needed, whether it be one week or three months, and by turning over to the city library during the summer months many of the most readable books of the school library, thus making them available to the entire community.

Not long ago a senior boy in a second-class city high school became the recipient of some necessary punishment in connection with an athletic team. His reaction and that of his parents were unfortunate. In order to help the boy, the entire board of education and the high-school faculty met with the father for an evening, not to pass upon the wisdom of the action that had already been taken, but to work out plans with the father for helping the boy overcome a regrettable attitude. The results more than compensated for the expenditure of time and thought of the twenty adults involved.

Any number of similar examples of how a community can help in the learning experiences of children could be enumerated. A more vital kind of learning is unquestionably needed. The schools can do much to provide situations offering rich experiences. But a community alert to the needs of child development can do a kind of teaching that no school alone can ever make possible. When, as individuals and as groups, the community participates in the entire educational program then will dawn a new day in education for a real democracy.

THE MODERN TEXTBOOK

The textbook is the most important single tool of instruction in American education. Its function has developed over a long period of years and certain practices regarding its use in instruction have acquired traditional sanction. The place of the textbook in the educational program, however, in common with that of other instructional devices and in common with educational objectives, the curriculum and teaching methods, is now undergoing significant change. As the traditional educational program is constantly being improved, the role of the textbook is being modified better to accord with new purposes and procedures.

The basic importance of the textbook as an aid to learning justifies careful consideration of the function it should perform in the modern educational program. This consideration will be helped by a contrast of the traditional and modern functions served by the textbook. — Dr. Vierling Kersey.

A Social-Studies Laboratory Built to Order

J. W. Baldwin¹

In 1928-29 the writer undertook an extensive investigation in an effort to determine what physical equipment and teaching aids are considered essential to effective teaching of the social studies in elementary and secondary schools. The volume in which the findings of the study were published is called *The Social Studies Laboratory*.²

The data were secured from teachers and schools in school systems which were placing special emphasis upon the teaching of the social studies. In about one out of every eight schools in this selected list there was a room which was designated as a social-studies laboratory or workroom. Such rooms, however, were not provided for in the original plans of the buildings, but were converted into work-

rooms later when the need became apparent. Despite their obvious limitations, many of them were serving their purpose remarkably well, due to the fact that their deficiencies were greatly minimized by the ingenuity and skill of enthusiastic teachers and supervisors.

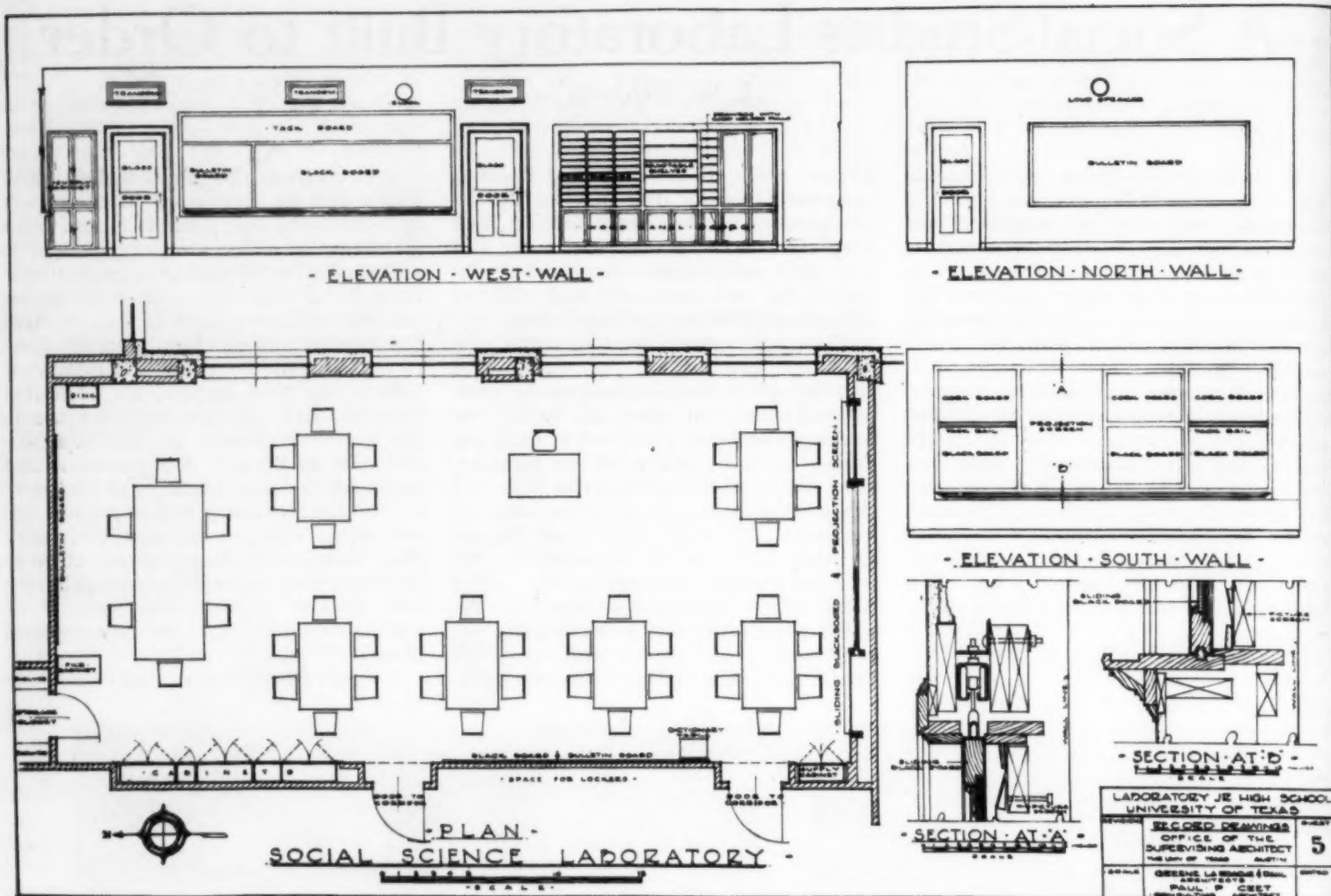
Those who have wrestled with the handicaps imposed by the necessity of remodeling ordinary classrooms to serve as workrooms can appreciate keenly the advantage of being permitted to draw the original sketches and write the specifications for the social-studies laboratory and the other space and equipment requirements for the social studies, and having all these suggestions embodied in the architect's plans for the building as a whole. This opportunity came to the writer when provisions were made for the construction of the University High School at the University of Texas in 1933.

We grouped the social-studies classrooms and the laboratory in a compact unit adjoining the general library. Such an arrangement has many advantages. It makes possible the utilization of the workroom by all the classes in social studies with the minimum waste of time required for moving groups from regular classrooms to and from the laboratory. It reduces the time required for borrowing materials from the laboratory for use in the other classrooms. It facilitates cooperation on the part of the teachers and pupils in the department. The proximity to the general library makes possible the use of the reference materials and many other books in the library almost as easily as if they were in the departmental library and greatly reduces the number of volumes required for the departmental library.

A large storage room used exclusively



A corner of the busy Social Science Laboratory at the Junior High School, University of Texas. Large tack boards and ample map holders are features of the equipment for this room. Breeze windows are set high in the corridor wall.—
University Studio Photograph.



Floor Plan and Elevations, Social Science Laboratory, Junior High School, University of Texas, Austin, Texas.

by the social-studies department adjoins and opens into the laboratory. It is well lighted and provided with many shelves and map racks. In addition to the many kinds of supplies, and finished projects stored for future reference or use, it houses many sets of historical and geographical maps, and many economics and citizenship charts. A small conference room equipped with lights, fan, table, and chairs serves for pupil activities which would disturb or be disturbed by activities carried on in the classrooms and the laboratory.

The laboratory itself occupies 50 per cent more floor space than that of a regular classroom. If it had not been planned before the construction of the building, much more space would have been required. Nearly all the bookshelves, cabinets, and cupboards are built in flush with the wall. The projection screen is built into the wall so that when not in use it is covered by sliding portions of the blackboard and bulletin boards. The room is equipped for all kinds of projection. Electric outlets are placed at various places in the floor as well as at both ends of the room so that projection equipment can be plugged in with short extension lines which do not interfere with freedom of movement in the workroom. The win-

dows are equipped with opaque shades as well as translucent shades. Electric fans are provided for use when the opaque shades are drawn. It is especially desirable to use the opaque shades when projecting post-card views and other materials with the reflectoscope. This is a most economical type of projection since an average of a hundred such views can be had for the cost of one lantern slide.

The ceiling of the workroom is made of perforated-cork tiles in order to subdue noise as much as possible. The artificial lights are arranged so that they can be turned on in any section of the room when needed. The transoms are opaque. This room, in common with the rooms throughout the building, is equipped with a public-address and announcement system over which radio programs are heard. Individual and group programs are also broadcast over this system by social-studies pupils when such an exercise is desired. Such numbers can be heard by any class throughout the building if the teacher cares to "tune in." In most instances only social-studies classes listen to the productions from that department.

One unique feature of the laboratory is the large amount of bulletin-board space provided for exhibit and display of project materials as they are completed.

All the wall area which is available for this purpose is utilized; and more is needed. Bulletin boards occupy more than twice as much space as do the blackboards. In addition to the strips of bulletin board above the blackboards, a part of one side wall and almost all of one end wall are occupied by bulletin board, extending from about two feet above the floor to a height of about six and one-half feet. A sink with running water is provided for washing paste pots, brushes, and other materials as well as the pupils' hands.

Built into one side of the laboratory are cabinets with a variety of compartments, pigeonholes, shelves, and drawers. One large cabinet with two compartments is used by the teacher only. Some of the built-in shelves are for magazines, newspapers, folding maps, and some types of unfinished projects. Others are for the departmental library. All of the shelves are adjustable and are open. Alongside these shelves there are built-in cabinets with drawers sufficient to hold several thousand slides and index cards. Another cabinet is provided for projection apparatus. Beneath these shelves and cabinets there are a half-dozen cupboards with doors for storage of museum articles and heavy materials when not in use or on

display. In addition to all these built-in cabinets and shelves, there is at present one steel filing cabinet and others are to be added for use in filing projects and other materials for future reference and use.

The laboratory is equipped with tables and chairs instead of the conventional desks. The tables are made of heavy materials so that they will not easily move about when pupils are working at them. The chairs are tipped with gliders set in rubber cushions so that they can be moved to or from the tables easily and with practically no noise. An entire class can get up from these tables and leave the room without making as much noise as is often made by one pupil in the same operation in some types of classrooms. Each table is large enough to accommodate four pupils at one time. In addition to these small tables at which groups work regularly there is a large worktable, four feet wide and ten feet long, for use in working on large relief maps, modeling, and construction work, etc.

Among other items of equipment in this room are: the teacher's desk and chair, the large globe, the book carriage provided with rubber-tired wheels, the projection stand equipped with noiseless casters, map rails, roller-map cases, waste baskets, pencil sharpener, etc. A museum case has been provided for but has not been installed as yet.

The most interesting feature of this workroom is the pupil activity which goes



Built-in cabinet and bookcases provide space for the ever changing current-events material used in the laboratory. — University Studio Photograph.

on here. The limits of this article do not permit a description of these activities.

Is there another social-studies laboratory anywhere built "from the ground up" as this one has been? The accompanying pictures of two interesting corners in this laboratory give some idea of the con-

struction of the room; its equipment and tools. The tables are crowded closer together than they actually are during laboratory activities. This was done in order to get more children into the pictures. The laboratory is not crowded, but quite open and comfortable.

Is the Workbook Really Worth While?

Ira O. Scott, Ph.D.¹

One of the bewildering tasks confronting the school executive is the solution to the workbook problem. On every side he is beset by biased opinion. Many of his teachers insist upon the workbook as a labor-saving teaching device; on the other hand parents object to the added cost. When the perplexed administrator turns to the publishers and authors of workbooks, he is told that these wonderful devices will help the student to master more economically the subject matter for which the workbooks are written. Book salesmen claim that here is the panacea for educational ills. However, in educational literature there is meager data either to discredit or sustain the glowing descriptions the administrator has heard. Many articles express opinions on the value or the worthlessness of the workbook, but relatively few give sufficiently convincing facts and statistics from which the puzzled reader can form an opinion that stands the test of experience.

¹Dr. Scott made the study here reported as part of a field study in connection with a doctoral dissertation accepted at Colorado State Teachers' College.

A Carefully Controlled Experiment

In an effort to collect evidence which might help solve the workbook problem, the junior and senior high schools of the Garden City, Kansas, school system were chosen for an experiment. Workbooks were already being used in a number of the classes, and the administrative organization provides classes large enough for division into three groups each. Twelve such classes were chosen, and for purposes of the experiment it was arranged to have one section in each subject, designated as the A group, to use the textbook only; to have a second section, designated as the B group, to use both textbook and the workbook; and a third group, designated as C group, to use only the workbook. The classes were divided to make the groups equivalent as nearly as is possible in a public-school system, on the basis of mental age. In other words about the same number of students of approximately the same average mental ages were placed in each of the three groups studying the same subject.

The three sections in each subject were taught by the same teacher with the same set of objectives in mind for the three sections. Each teacher was asked to outline these objectives at the beginning of the year and to keep them before him throughout the year. This was done to insure, as nearly as possible, that each teacher would have a definite goal in mind, the same goal for each of the three divisions, though these aims were to be attained by three different routes. Each class was given a preliminary teacher-made test at the beginning of the term. The teacher-made test was used in order to obtain, as nearly as possible, a test valid for the objectives set up by the teachers. At the close of the term the same test was administered. These test scores were tabulated, showing the mean gains for each class. The classes chosen for the experiment were ninth-grade algebra, ninth-grade biology, eighth-grade civics, seventh-grade English, eighth-grade English, ninth-grade English, tenth-grade English, eleventh-grade English, seventh-grade geography, tenth-grade geometry,

Panacea

twelfth-grade United States history, and seventh-grade mathematics.

When the scores for both tests had been recorded and the gains computed, the mean gain for each group was calculated. The standard deviation of each distribution of gains was computed. The standard error of the standard deviation was then calculated, and the correlation between the mental age and the gains made on the teacher-made test was determined. The formulas for determining these measures were those explained in Garrett.²

The Confusing Results

With these preliminary figures obtained, it was possible to calculate comparative measures, the interpretation of which provided an understanding of the results of the experiment.

Five classes—ninth-grade algebra, eleventh-grade English, ninth-grade biology, twelfth-grade American history, and tenth-grade geometry—showed gains for the group using the workbook alone greater than those made by the other two groups.

Four classes—ninth-grade English, tenth-grade English, seventh-grade geography, and eighth-grade civics—showed greatest gains in favor of using the textbook alone.

Three classes—seventh-grade mathematics, eighth-grade English, and seventh-grade English—showed greatest gains for the groups using the textbook and the workbook together.

These immediate results of the study certainly do not help solve the vexing workbook problem. Further consideration is necessary.

Of the four groups showing gains in favor of the use of the textbook alone two were English classes, one geography, and one civics.

In the five groups showing gains in favor of the workbook two were mathematics, and one each, English, history, and science. One mathematics and two English classes comprised the group of three which showed greatest gains using the textbook and workbook together.

Considering the small difference in the number of classes showing an advantage for each method, it is plain that these figures do not constitute an invincible argument in favor of the workbook, which was most advantageous for five classes, compared with four classes for the textbook alone and three for the workbook and textbook used together. Nor does the distribution of subjects in each of the groups offer any solution as to which subjects profit or suffer from the use of workbooks.

A Summary of All Studies

Since in itself no one study is likely to be sufficiently comprehensive to determine conclusively the truth concerning the actual value of workbooks, it seemed profitable to examine the results avail-

able, including the Garden City study, in the hope of thus supplementing our study in such a way as to discount the effect of too few cases and too limited a number of school subjects. With this object in view the results of the sixteen studies available were compiled, showing the outcomes with fifty-seven groups. Of the fifty-seven groups studied, thirty-seven showed differences in favor of the use of the workbook, but only eleven of these are reported as statistically significant. Three groups showed no differences, six of them statistically significant, in favor of the use of the textbook alone. For eight of the groups there was an "apparent" difference in favor of the workbook.

Considering the eleven statistically significant differences in favor of the workbook as compared with six in favor of the textbook, it would seem that a significant difference favoring either the workbook or the traditional method has not often been found to indicate conclusively the superiority of either method.

Of the thirty-seven groups showing a difference in favor of the workbook, eighteen were mathematics classes, two were American history and civics, four were English, four home economics, and nine science. The eleven groups showing a significant gain were distributed as follows: science, four; mathematics, three; English, three; and history, one.

One mathematics, two English, one geography, one civics, and four science classes, showed gains in favor of the textbook. Of these, six gains were significant,

two classes each of English and science, and one each of geography and civics.

Two science and two geography classes showed *no* difference between the control and the experimental groups.

Seven mathematics classes and one English class showed *apparent* gains in favor of the workbook.

As in the consideration of the Garden City study alone, attention to the consideration of all available studies shows that the disparity of subjects showing differences in favor of either method is so wide as to indicate no consistent results. These studies have not shown for which of the subjects, if any, the workbook method is preferable.

The lack of conclusive results in this experiment or in any investigations made previously to determine the value of the workbook indicates that, if this teaching device is to be correctly evaluated, more research on the problem is essential.

It should be determined by carefully planned and controlled experiment whether a properly constructed workbook, built for a specific purpose and placed in the hands of a teacher educated to use such a workbook, would produce class achievement greater than that of the traditional method; what criteria may best be used to measure the real worth of a workbook; whether a workbook constructed for a specific purpose can actually achieve that purpose; whether the workbook is really an adequate substitute for oral teaching; and whether the workbook is really a better teaching device than the ordinary textbook.

SELF-RATING SCALE FOR SCHOOL-BOARD MEMBERS¹

| | Yes | No |
|---|-----|-----|
| 1. Do I want every child to have the best educational opportunities that our district can afford? | () | () |
| 2. Do I have a good general understanding about current problems in Education? | () | () |
| 3. Do I help to elect the most desirable employees for our school system? | () | () |
| 4. Do I loyally support those who carry out the policies of the board? | () | () |
| 5. Am I willing to delegate administrative duties to the proper persons? | () | () |
| 6. Do I stand for a just wage for efficient service? | () | () |
| 7. Do I insist that all agents of the board be held strictly responsible for efficient service? | () | () |
| 8. Do I use my influence to secure frequent and adequate reports from all agents of the board? | () | () |
| 9. Do I get facts, study them, and make my decisions in the light of them? | () | () |
| 10. Do I recognize the difference between economy and stinginess? | () | () |
| 11. Do I think in terms of the future as well as the present? | () | () |
| 12. Am I well informed as to the resources of the district which I represent? | () | () |
| 13. Can I form an opinion of my own and at the same time retain an open mind? | () | () |
| 14. Do I co-operate well with other board members; with employees; with other official groups; with the public? | () | () |
| 15. Do I work for the success of all the board's policies—even those adopted against my advice and vote? | () | () |
| 16. Do I do my part of the work and shoulder my share of the responsibility? | () | () |
| 17. Am I informed about the school law in my state? | () | () |
| 18. Am I free from the dominance of any party or faction in my school district? | () | () |
| 19. Do I refuse to speak or act personally on matters which properly belong to the board as a whole? | () | () |
| 20. Am I conscientious about my work and prompt and regular in my attendance at board meetings? | () | () |

Total (Count the number of checks in each column):

²Garrett, Henry E., *Statistics in Psychology and Education* (Longmans, New York, 1926).

¹"The School Board Member," *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association*, Vol. XI, No. 1.

The Administration of a Diagnostic and Remedial-Reading Program on the Elementary-School Level

James A. Fitzgerald¹

In a remedial-reading program, one of the most important and vital factors is efficient administration. Without effective administration a diagnostic and remedial program fails to achieve its objectives; with effective administration, the program is given excellent opportunities to help retarded and handicapped children either to learn to read or to improve their reading abilities, habits, and skills. Accordingly this paper is presented with the purpose of helping administrators—principals and superintendents—to a clearer understanding of a few of the administrative procedures which were found helpful in installing and conducting a diagnostic and remedial program at the Walsh Elementary School, Chicago.

The Walsh Elementary School is located just one-half block west of Halsted Street in what one might call a *foreign* neighborhood. Many of the children are delicate; some are not well-nourished nor well-clothed; many have language difficulties because a language other than English is spoken in the homes; but they are fine children, well-behaved, orderly, and grateful for anything which is done for them. Few schools in the country have as fine a spirit as the Walsh. This spirit is due partly to the native orderliness of the children and also in no small part to the efficient administration of the principal, Earl L. Koehler, and the kindly co-operative instruction of the teachers of the school.

Organization

The total membership of the Walsh School in the autumn of 1936 was 718, of which 376 were enrolled in grades four to eight inclusive, the grades to which diagnostic and remedial procedures were directed in this program. The school is administered by the principal and an assistant principal, who teaches the Eight-A Grade. Eight other teachers, one of them an adjustment teacher, make up the teaching staff. The writer directed the remedial-reading program with the assistance and co-operation of the principal and the staff. Four cadets were assigned by the superintendent of schools to assist in preparing materials, cataloging books, etc. A co-ordinator, Mrs. Julia MacNamee, gave good counsel and advice. The child-study department assisted ably with the mental, reading, and telebinocular testing. A special worker gave the Snellen tests.

Diagnostic Program

Because of the large number of children and the smallness of the staff, the diagnosis began with the whole group, grad-

ually narrowed down to smaller groups, and then to individuals. Diagnosis was a continuous procedure, for it was realized that children's defects, abilities, and interests change even from day to day. Diagnosis in brief followed three main avenues of approach: through interests, through abilities, and through deficiencies.

The *Gates four-type silent-reading tests* (which test abilities to appreciate general significance, to predict outcomes, to understand precise directions, and to note details) and the *New Stanford reading examination* were given by the principal and the child-study department to find the silent-reading abilities and deficiencies. The *Gray oral-reading paragraphs* were given by the teachers to diagnose oral difficulties in reading. The general intelligence of the children was determined by the *Kuhlman-Anderson test* administered by the child-study department.

The interests, likes, and dislikes of the children were checked by the *Witty-pupil report on interests and activities*. Each child was questioned and interviewed, both in the group and individually by the teachers, and many dominant points of interest were uncovered.

The classroom teacher was instructed to be vigilant and alert at all times to note defects when they occurred, and to note changes in interests, defects, and abilities. Co-operation by all members of the staff relative to testing and diagnosis was an important factor in the success of the testing program.

Table I shows the reading situation at the Walsh school. Note that approximately one third of the children were retarded and nearly one fourth of them were retarded a year or more in reading.

In addition to the ordinary examinations by the school physician, tests of vision were made by means of the telebinocular and the Snellen charts; tests of hearing and tests of handedness were also given. In cases of defective eyesight, glasses were provided.

TABLE I. Reading retardation in grades 4B to 8A inclusive.

| Reading Retardation in Years | Number of Cases | Percentage |
|---|-----------------|------------|
| 2-4 years or more..... | 36 | 9.6 |
| 1.5-1.9 years | 22 | 5.9 |
| 1.0-1.4 years | 30 | 8.0 |
| 0.5-0.9 years | 28 | 7.4 |
| 0.1-0.4 years | 9 | 2.4 |
| Total retarded..... | 125 | 33.3 |
| Total membership grades 4 to 8 inclusive 376. | | |

Individual Cumulative Record Folders

The results of testing, and other data as they were obtained, were collected into

a file for each child so that they could be used constantly by the teacher. The folder for each child contained:

1. Gates four-type reading tests and results.
2. Gray's oral-reading paragraphs.
3. Stanford achievement tests and results.
4. Kuhlman-Anderson intelligence test and results.
5. Test-record card.
6. Witty-pupil report on interests and activities.
7. Personality-traits record.
8. Remedial-assignment record.
9. Work-achievement record.
10. Physical-examination records, if any.
11. Miscellaneous records.

These records were used in consideration of the defects and abilities of each child. By means of them and the teacher's observations and judgments, remedial assignments were made.

Classification and Assignment

The 125 remedial cases were grouped first into two divisions; those who were more seriously retarded, and those who were less seriously retarded. The seriously retarded children, approximately fifty, were taught by the remedial-reading teacher, Mrs. Snider, in a special room, at a special period each day. Those less seriously retarded, approximately 75, were cared for by the teachers in the regular classrooms.

The remedial-reading teacher instructed all pupils in grades six, seven, and eight retarded two years or more, pupils in grade five retarded 1.5 years or more, and pupils in grade four retarded 1.0 year or more. Classroom teachers instructed the others.

The remedial-reading teacher handled five groups of about ten pupils each daily, in forty-minute periods. The children were chosen for each group principally because of three factors: reading level, school grade, and interests. The following is a summary of grade level and reading level of each of the five groups:

| Group | School Grade | Reading Grade |
|-------|--------------|---------------|
| A | 8 | 5 -6.6 |
| B | 7 | 3.7-4.2 |
| C | 7 & 8 | 5.0-6.7 |
| D | 5, 6, 7, & 8 | 3.4-4.7 |
| E | 4, 5, & 6 | 3.0-3.4 |

Some critics may say that it is wrong to place children from several grades together for such instruction and that the children will consider such a procedure a disgrace. No evidence of this was found; children felt it a golden opportunity to be assigned to any of the remedial classes. The progress made by many of the badly retarded children of low I.Q.'s was amazing; part of it no doubt was due to the well-ordered classification. However what may succeed in one situation may fail in

¹Associate Professor of Education, Loyola University, Chicago, Director, Walsh Reading Clinic.

another. Accordingly this method of classification is indicated merely as a matter of record.

The remaining remedial cases were handled in their respective rooms, in groups of approximately ten each. Each remedial group received practically the undivided attention of the regular teacher for a period ranging from 30 to 40 minutes daily. The other children in the room were required to work problems, read poetry and literature, study projects, or complete some unfinished work.

Procedure

Since specific methods cannot be discussed in this paper general statements of procedure may be of value to administrators. The procedures were based principally upon the theory that every child must learn to be independent and must learn to go it alone. Each child was assigned work on the basis of his interests, abilities, and deficiencies. Each child was interested in reading at his ability level; in learning how to read better; and in overcoming his defects. Each child was taught to succeed. His reading was directed at first at a difficulty level such that he could read with comprehension and understanding. He was taught definitely to read for pleasure or to get information; he was taught to note details or to comprehend the general significance of a paragraph as his needs demanded. If he were weak in an ability or a skill, he was instructed how to succeed in that particular ability or skill.

In order to save time, when their needs demanded the same instruction, the children were instructed in small groups; group discussion of what was read was often an important factor in understanding and more often the best source of interesting some in a new and unknown field. Interest not only developed for the individual but it spread from individual to individual. Spontaneous discussions at recess time among members of different groups gave evidence of the interest. Not only new interests developed but increasingly was there evidence attested to by director, teachers, and principal of interest in better and better things. It was the philosophy of the director that the interests, as they were, should be utilized at the beginning but also should be guided to finer and better values. This was to a great degree accomplished.

Materials

Among the materials used for work-type reading and mechanics were the *Gates-Pearson practice exercises in reading*, the *McCall-Crabbs standard-test lessons in reading*, and Bruckner and Lewis *Diagnostic tests and remedial exercises in reading*. Among the materials for recreational reading were the *Children's bookshelf*, the *Petersham library of social-study books*, the *Happy-hour series*, and the *Alice and Jerry books*. Materials used for work or recreational reading were:

My weekly reader and the *Unit-study books*. Other books used to advantage were the *Modern-world series*, *Building America*, current events, picture scripts, and *Real life stories*. Several series readers in sets of ten were provided. A library was organized in the demonstration room; books were brought in from the public library; and others were made available for free periods and for home reading. Some of the materials were cut up and placed in booklets so that small amounts would circulate more easily around the classes. In addition to the materials supplied for common deficiencies, defects, and abilities, materials, were provided for individual needs and interests.

Schedule and Program

Each week, on Tuesday, a meeting was held for the members of the staff. The director talked about any problem or material which he thought valuable and timely. Clinical questions were raised; remedial methods were discussed. At first the meetings were long because of the many things which challenged attention. The average meeting throughout the program lasted perhaps fifty minutes.

A weekly meeting was held also for visitors, teachers, and principals from the Chicago school system and for others. On one occasion 150 principals met to observe the teaching and to listen to the lecture and discussion. The number of visitors ranged on other Tuesdays from perhaps 25 to 100. In the meetings for the visitors, the director usually gave a talk, which was followed by a discussion of questions and problems of the visitors.

Great interest was shown by the visitors in methods and materials. A demonstration room, equipped with the latest materials, was visited often and long. Here the teachers read new books and materials which had been placed upon display. Typical Tuesday programs permitted the visitors to observe several kinds of

remedial teaching by visiting from nine to twelve, either in the remedial-reading room, or in the regular classrooms. In the afternoon, they could attend the meeting.

Results

The most obvious results were the increased abilities and interests of the children. In three and one-half months, the average gain in reading ability according to a second testing, with the third form of the Gates four-type test, was 6.6 months. The children seemed to enjoy reading partly because they had come to find a method which gave them power and independence. They read because they wanted to read; they read for information and for fun. Their attitudes had changed. They begged to be permitted to remain in the remedial-reading classes; they asked for poetry; the children of one group requested the director to read poems to them. As one child put it, "I was poor in history and geography. Now I am better in these subjects. I know some meanings of words. I read books and newspapers. I read interesting stories. I hope the remedial reading will go on next year. I thank the teacher who teaches me." Another said, "Before I was in remedial reading I could not pronounce or understand words very well. Since I have been in the remedial reading, I can pronounce and understand much better. I am reading books at home better and faster."

Teachers and principals have been extremely complimentary. By their statements and their actions they have indicated that they have received much help; they have instituted excellent programs of diagnostic and remedial work in their own schools.

Thus it is hardly too much to say that in this program which in a sense was an experiment, all have benefited because of an efficient, orderly, courteous, well-planned, and effective administration.



Board of Trustees, Salinas Union High School District, Salinas, California.—
Left to right: J. Frank Laughton, W. B. Murray, G. C. Tholcke, president,
Harry L. Noland, and M. B. Young.

The American State University¹

Edward A. Fitzpatrick²

The American state university is regarded as the natural and inevitable culmination of the American public-school system. It is an inevitable educational implication of our democracy. It is "viewed with pride" wherever the opportunity is offered, and any attack on it is "viewed with alarm." It is particularly encouraging in the American mood today that this most cherished of our institutions can be looked at objectively in the light of its history and its philosophy from within. It indicates the presence of critical capacity, it indicates freedom to challenge practices, it indicates courage to do so.

It would be a great thing for American education, as some of our state constitutions suggest for American political institutions, if there were a frequent recurrence to fundamental principles. It would be well for our secondary and elementary schools if the same kind of challenge were "thrown down" to them as is given in Norman Foerster's *The American State University*. Norman Foerster is one of the distinguished American humanists, director of the School of Letters of the University of Iowa, an important scholar in the field of American literature, and an author of distinction.

He throws down the gauntlet in the opening sentence of his book: "The American state university has progressively tended to subvert the higher interests of American democracy." So the introduction begins. Here is how it ends: "The state university of today threatens the health and security of American Democracy." The efforts at reform have aimed at the mechanism of education, not at its end and purpose. By making the machine more perfect, it has strengthened its disintegrating effects.

I think we can render a service to all of American education if the challenge of the viewpoint of this book is widely known and answered either in the forum of public discussion or in the more vital place, the classrooms of our institutions. The purpose of this article is to present the challenging viewpoints of this book as sympathetically as possible in the hope that American education will thereby be helped. It is hoped, too, a fuller understanding of the viewpoints will be sought by reading the fuller discussion in the book itself. May this article be a vestibule to the book itself.

The basis of the state university is twofold, the political and the spiritual. The basis is not in the Jeffersonian brand of

democracy, but in the Jacksonian. "Responding," says Mr. Foerster, "to the equalitarian spirit of Jackson and the frontier, rather than the selective spirit of Jefferson and the framers of the Constitution, they (the state universities) were inclined to offer so far as they could afford it, all sorts of practical education to all sorts of people." Jefferson's own plan of education was to hope "that twenty geniuses will be raked from the rubbish."

Joined with the equalitarian principle of Jacksonian democracy was an emotional humanitarianism. This spiritual basis of the state university is made up of the sentimentalism of Rousseau and of scientific utilitarianism. And in the midst of sentences that are often heavy in thought as well as in style, there are brief revealing summarizing sentences which tell the story of this false basis:

"Its reform never meant reform of oneself."

"In the older Christianity, the abundant life was to be achieved by self-renunciation and charity; in the new materialism, it was secured by self-assertion and the 'devil take the hindmost.'"

The first result of this hybrid of Jacksonian democracy and the humanitarian impulse was mass instruction, in which "raw teachers faced the task of refining raw students." The fundamental purpose was to train "the natural man in his task of conquering physical nature and an industrial order." The students subscribed to the religion of "getting on," which they rationalized in their sentimental moments into the humanitarian religion of getting on in the world: *progress*. The vocational motive was dominant and the college diploma had a definite commercial value. Studies were not the student activities—they were the student passivities, meekly listened to. The students entered zestfully into student "activities" and graduated, in Mr. Foerster's language, "quickly merging into the mass of American life, undistinguished by superiority either ethical or cultural."

Along with mass education went the educational aims of training for "service and power"—a phrase of President Eliot's—a phrase which J. J. Adams calls one of the most baneful phrases ever let loose by an educator on an uneducated people. "There was a sentimental unreality," says Mr. Foerster, "about the service in marked contrast to the solid substance of the power. And the power itself was of a low order, the power of machines rather than intelligences. As will be made clearer farther on, the old education had aimed at the liberation of powers of mind and personality, whereas the new education aimed primarily and

directly at efficiency in doing some particular thing, whether that thing was skill in handling gas engines or in adding to the sum of our knowledge of Greek verbs."

Science is, of course, the great instrument to this end, but too often all we get in the state university is "scientism"—a perversion of science—which is described as a "more or less exclusive devotion to the methods, mental attitudes, and doctrines appropriate to science, ordinarily culminating in some form of naturalistic speculation." Religion itself comes under the influence of "scientism" and what was once "esteemed as a cure for the soul's sickness" comes to be "regarded as a sign of the soul's sickness." Education and psychology as well as scientism also receive a blistering analysis.

Such was the picture, as Mr. Foerster paints it, of the American state university before 1930. After 1930 the state university found itself in a new social and intellectual milieu. It had failed three great crises: the crises of a great war, a great prosperity, and a great depression. The result was bewilderment and paralysis. The basic conceptions and attributes on which the state university rested became suspect; democracy, science and, particularly, economic science, progress. Even the man-in-the-street wanted to know "what price science?" "The efficiency, safety, comforts, conveniences which were promised—where were they?" The situation was one of doubts and drifts and questions. The public, or at least college graduates, looked to the university first bewildered and then resentful. Where is the university's leadership? And the surprising answer was made: "They had faithfully carried out their obvious function of giving the public, not what it needs, but what it wants. A state university, it was said, is in its very nature not a guide but a servant."

"What," the graduate asked, "is the use of this 'practical' education we have received?" It is today impractical. The graduate felt more consciously his real needs. "We want," so Mr. Foerster phrases it, "to learn to do something, but cannot we also be something—is there no training for personality, for ideals, for values? We are serious; we are willing to work; we realize that we aren't in the easygoing college of the coonskin period. Can't we find something really worth while?"

The efforts to improve the teaching ultimately were lost in improving the machine. The issue of purposes, goals, ends, was not faced, and consequently, it is observed, "It may well turn out that the professor who succeeds in making his

¹*The American State University*, by Norman Foerster. Cloth, 287 pp. \$2.50. The University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, N. C. 1937.

²President of Mount Mary College, and Dean of the Graduate School of Marquette University, Milwaukee, Wis.

students work hard for themselves is at the same time misleading, misinspiring, misguiding them." "Inability to learn is a far more prevalent phenomenon in the American college than is inability to teach."

The American state university has to face the issue of higher standards and a redefinition of function, or "lower standards and aimless miscellaneity." "The time has come, it would seem, not for further uncritical attempts to enlarge the pattern, but rather for a stream of fresh thought that might help us wisely to alter the pattern. The time has come when social prudence dictates, not the fixation of our inherited idea of a state university, but a free and creative reconsideration, conducted in view of the permanent nature of man as well as the special concerns of the time, of what should be the role of higher education in a constitutional democracy."

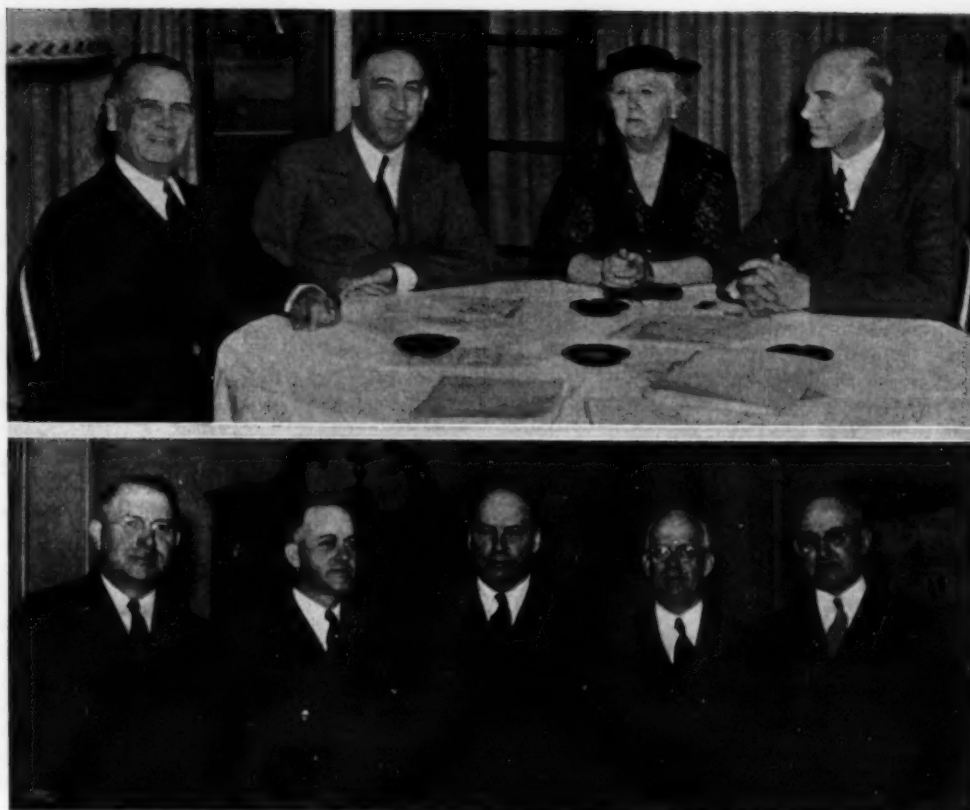
The author then faces two fundamental principles of the American state university, academic freedom and universal education on the college and university level. At the very time that our democracy needs reillumination and revitalization, academic freedom is challenged. Freedom of speech is always won hard but easily lost. There is a brief paragraph that needs to be thrown into the contemporary discussion:

"The educational indoctrination proper in the light of our Constitution is nothing other than indoctrination in the principles of democratic government—indoctrination, above all, in freedom of thought and speech."

The evils of academic freedom are greater than the evils of the suppression of academic freedom. Academic freedom is often abused by individual professors. We fail to emphasize, when we talk about the right of academic freedom, the correlative responsibility. We do not distinguish between free speech and foolish speech. Too often academic freedom is used for exhibitionism. The real limitations on academic freedom are good manners and good taste.

The problem of "public education for all" cannot be solved on the student's observation: "The dumbest of us soaks up something at college." This fact must be recognized: "If higher education is to deserve the name, it cannot be brought within the reach of the ineducable and the passively educable." The university must cease to use its energies as it is now doing: "The average and the sub-average are taught, coddled, nursed, cajoled, scolded, satirized, given daily lessons, 'help up' by quizzes and tests, interviewed by teachers and deans, benefited by special remedial assistance, and are permitted largely to determine teaching methods, standards, and curricula."

From that point of view, it must turn to the other that the acid test of the university is its solicitude for able students. The ablest must no longer be the "for-



Members of the Michigan State Board of Education (upper picture, left to right): Frank Cody, chairman; Eugene B. Elliott, state superintendent of public instruction; Mrs. Earl F. Wilson of Saginaw, vice-chairman of the board; and Wynand Wichers, president of Hope College.

The lower picture, left to right: Chester F. Miller, school superintendent, Saginaw; E. C. Warriner, president of Central State Teachers College; Webster H. Pearce, president of Northern State Teachers College, who formerly was state superintendent of public instruction and before that a member of the faculty at Central State; J. M. Munson, president of Michigan State Normal College; and Paul V. Sangren, president of Western State Teachers College.

gotten man" of the university, and special steps must be taken from the exceptionally capable.

The effort of the state university to make education higher and more accessible has resulted in making it more accessible but not higher. The interest of the state university should be a natural aristocracy of intelligence and character, and not an aristocracy of birth and wealth. The final test of democracy is to produce and encourage superior individuals.

"We shall then remember what a university must always be: neither, as some think, a school of all things fit to be studied, nor still less, as many think, a school where all things may be studied, but rather, as is indicated by the term *studium generale* (the original *universitas*), a school for all fit persons. With fit persons the university must still, as in the Middle Ages, be primarily concerned, only it must see to it, as the Middle Ages failed to do, that all fit persons are enabled to receive training.

"Republican institutions are, in the last analysis, the application to human affairs of those broad humane ideals that a liberal education preserves, enriches, and expands."

In the last two chapters of the book, the transforming effects of the author's central conception of humanism is indicated.

To teach us how to think has always been the end of the university, but to say that the university of today teaches its students how to think is sheer cant. Where it does succeed, it teaches its students to think scientifically, that is, in its vocabulary, to teach naturalistically. What it should do is to teach the student to think humanistically.

By humanistic thinking is meant the domination of facts by principle and it is characterized by reflecting, relating, weighing, and judging. Its aim is the critical mind, wisdom, and taste. In short, the object of the humanistic university is intellectual excellence, or rather, "*man-thinking*." It rejects the equivalence of studies. The selection of studies is the heart of the liberal-arts college. It is opposed to the centrifugal forces that separate faculties and that separate students. A curriculum for each student is a total abdication of the institutional responsibility—that is, when the curriculum becomes "pupil purposed, pupil planned, pupil executed, and pupil

(Concluded on page 83)

"Shall Cause the Child to Attend School"

Patrick Joseph Smith¹

Compulsory attendance at school has been given consideration for a great many centuries. Where the germ for this idea originated, history does not say. But we do know that it was never lost, for the colony charter of Massachusetts Bay gave attention to education. In the Colony Laws (Chapter 22, Section 1) it ordered the selectmen to keep a vigilant eye over their neighbors to see, "First, that none of them shall suffer so much barbarism in any of their families as not to endeavor to teach, by themselves or others, their children and apprentices, so much learning as may enable them perfectly to read the English tongue and have knowledge of the capital laws."

For two hundred years after this beginning made by the Pilgrims, nothing was done. Industrial expansion and free schools awakened some to the need for education. Nevertheless, it was not until Horace Mann gave special attention, in his reports, to the evils of noneducation and truancy, that public opinion was aroused. In 1850 Massachusetts passed a truancy law and two years later a compulsory school-attendance act, which was the mother law of compulsory-attendance legislation. The other states followed this example. The last two to do so were Georgia (1916) and Mississippi (1918). England followed the precedent set by Massachusetts and five other states, and in 1870 adopted a compulsory-education statute.

As is usually the case, especially with laws affecting a large group, the courts were called upon to interpret the meaning and to determine whether or not the laws were constitutional. One of the best expositions of the fundaments upon which the law of compulsory attendance is based, and the social philosophy behind a decision holding such a law constitutional, is in the case of *State vs. Bailey*, 157 Indiana 324, in which the court said: "The natural rights of a parent to the custody and control of his infant child may be regulated by municipal laws." Said the court:

One of the most important natural duties of the parent is his obligation to educate his child, and this duty he owes not to the child only, but to the commonwealth. If he neglects to perform it, or willfully refuses to do so, he may be coerced by law to execute such civil obligation. The welfare of the child, and the best interests of society require that the state shall exert its sovereign authority to secure to the child the opportunity to secure an education. Statutes making it compulsory upon the parent, guardian, or other person having the custody and control of children to send them to public or private schools for longer or shorter periods, during certain years of the life of such children, having not only been upheld as strictly within the constitutional power of the legislature, but have generally been regarded as necessary to

carry out the express purposes of the Constitution itself. . . .

The matter of education is deemed a legitimate function of the state, and with us is imposed upon the legislature as a duty by imperative provisions of the constitution. . . . The subject has always been regarded as within the purview of legislative authority.

Extent of Compulsion

However, if the statute compels every child for the prescribed period to attend a public school exclusively it is not constitutional. In *Pierce vs. Society of Sisters*, 268 U. S. 510, the Supreme Court said:

The fundamental theory of liberty upon which all government in this union reposes excludes general power of the state to standardize its children by forcing them to accept instruction from public teachers only. The child is not the mere creature of the state; those who nurture him and direct his destiny have the right, coupled with the high duty, to recognize and prepare him for additional obligations.

The law applies to all children of school age whether receiving their instruction at the public school or elsewhere. It applies as well to the children of aliens residing in this country. But those children who have reached the maximum age before the beginning of the school year are exempt in most states.

If the period of required attendance is described in the statute as "inclusive" of the last year, the requirement is carried through and not merely to such year. This question was raised in *Covell vs. State*, 143 Tenn. 571 (1921); 227 S.W. 41. "We think the language used, 'between the ages of seven and sixteen years inclusive,' is entirely free from ambiguity. . . . The words are to be taken in their ordinary and usual acceptation, and, so considered, must apply to children in their seventh, sixteenth, and intermediate years, as these respective ages are customarily referred to." *Contra, Jackson vs. Mason*, 145 Mich. 338 (1906). Likewise, the statute imposes the duty of seeing that the children attend upon the parents, and also all those who may stand in a parental relationship. Such persons as guardians, persons liable to maintain, and those people who have the actual custody are liable. *People vs. Hendrickson*, 104 N.Y.S. 122.

All the statutes have exceptions or an exempting paragraph which removes liability if the defendant has a reasonable excuse. If a child, for example, lives an unreasonable walking distance from the school and transportation is not provided by the school board, an action cannot be maintained against the parents. *State vs. Hall*, 74 N.H. 61. Nor is money, offered in lieu of transportation, enough to bring the pupil within the compulsory-education statute. "The respondent was under no more legal obligation to convey the children under his care for reasonable

compensation than he was to convey any other children in the district. . . . The statute does not require the respondent to furnish to the district conveyance of scholars at his own expense, or for the sum thought reasonable by the school board." *State vs. Hall (supra.) State ex rel. Fried vs. McDonald*, 208 N.W. 99.

Tardiness and Absences

Despite the liberal views of the courts, the statute is not broad enough to include tardiness even though it says that attendance shall be "continuously for the full number of days for which such school is held." Such is left to the discretion of the school authorities. *State vs. Burroughs*, 102 Vt. 33. Nor will it apply where the absences are occasional, *State vs. Jackson*, 71 N.H. 552; but it will operate where the child is frequently and habitually absent, *Isle of Wight County Council vs. Holland*, 101 Law Times Rep. N. S. 861. On the other hand, in *Marshall vs. Graham*, 1907, 2 K.B. 112, Lord Alverstone held that an absence from school for a religious service on a day set apart by the church constituted a valid excuse. "We certainly ought not," he said, "give any such meaning to it as would prevent the exemption from applying to Christmas Day, Good Friday, and other well-known sacred days. . . ." And in *Belper School-Attendance Committee vs. Bailey*, 9 Q.B. 259, the court lessened the liability of parents where a child was sent to school but absented himself unbeknown to the parent:

The circumstances were that this child of eleven years was sent by the parent every day to go to school at the usual time, and the parent had only on two occasions reason to believe that the child did not attend. On those two occasions, and on notice of the nonattendance, the mother corrected the child, and the respondent might assume that thenceforth it was obediently attending school. He never heard, nor had any notice sent to him, that the child was not thenceforth attending, and he was probably led by the child to believe that it was attending, and had no reason to disbelieve it. Therefore, I think he had a reasonable excuse. . . . It would be wholly impractical to require the parent to go to school with the child.

On the contrary, "The statute," an Ohio court said, "is not complied with when a parent or other person having the care and custody of a child within the school age, sends it to schoolhouse or schoolroom. The law is that such person 'cause the child to attend school.'" *Troyer vs. State*, 21 Ohio N.P. 121.

However, it has been held that when actual necessity demands, a child may work and the good of the family is paramount. In one case "the father was a laborer, at very small wages, and if the parents had been deprived of the additional money earned by the child in question, it would have been impossible for them to have provided adequate food for their other children, and the health of some of the children would have been seriously injured. . . . I think the respondent has shown a reasonable

(Continued on page 82)

¹Assistant Attorney General, Indianapolis.

Stokers Economize for Rockford Schools

Hugh D. Tolmie¹

Experience of the Rockford public schools with stoker-firing since the first stoker was installed in 1931 has been so gratifying that all of the system's 17 grade-school buildings have now been equipped. Fuel savings ranging up to 31 per cent are disclosed by board-of-education records of coal consumption before and after stoker installations, but the most important advantages of letting machines instead of men fire the boilers do not appear in the record books.

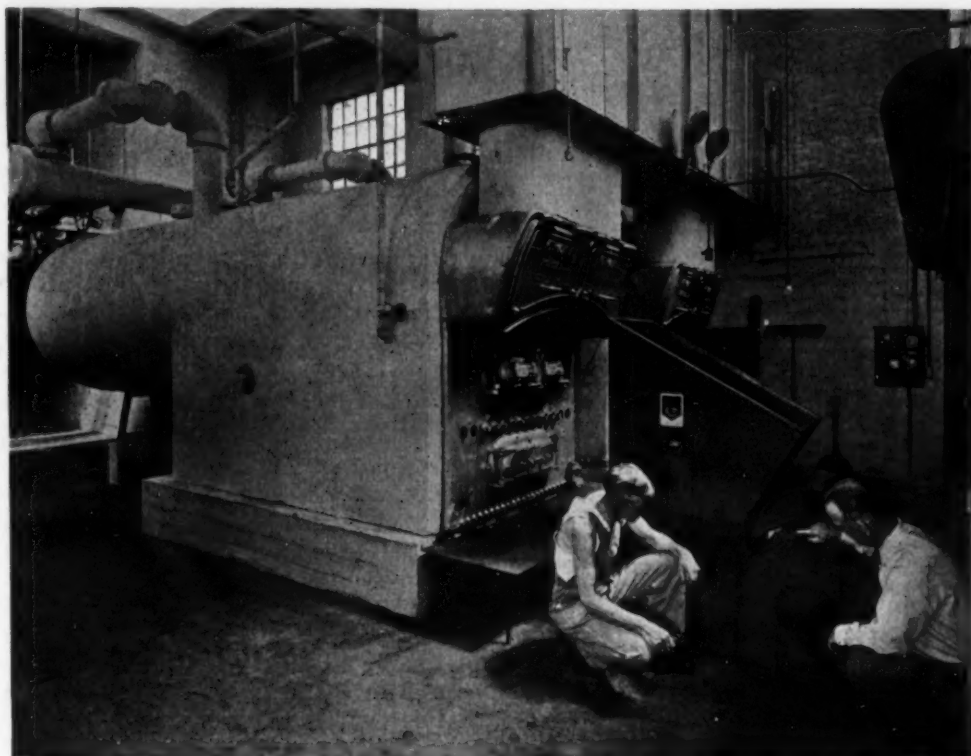
The great advantage of a stoker is not in the amount of money saved because stoker-fired boilers burn less coal and cheaper coal, but in the uniform temperature it assures in the classrooms. Linked with a good thermostatic-control system and equipped with modern safety devices and a stoker, the boiler in every Rockford grade school today is as efficient, safe, dependable, and economical as modern science can make it.

Janitors and custodians are free in severe weather and mild to devote practically all their time to maintenance work in halls and classrooms, regardless of how far they may be from the boiler room. When a third or a half ton of coal has been loaded into the stoker hopper and the controls have been set, the janitor is free for the better part of the day to perform his other duties without interruption.

Rockford changed over to stokers by easy stages, beginning with two grade-school buildings, an old one and a newly completed one, in 1931. The depression cut into available funds and no further conversions from hand-firing to stoker-firing took place until 1935, when nine more buildings were changed over. Money was scarcely more plentiful in 1935 than for several years back, but the board's experience with the two stokers already installed, combined with the opportunity to save sorely needed educational funds by purchasing stokers with building fund cash, caused the board to proceed. The last six buildings were equipped with stokers a year ago.

Fuel savings at the Jackson school, an old 14-classroom building, have been quite remarkable in the six heating seasons since a stoker was installed. This is the only school in the system which affords an adequate basis for calculating the respective costs of hand-fired and stoker-fired heat. In this instance, exact figures are available for six seasons of hand-firing and six of stoker-firing, both embracing mild as well as extremely severe winters in even proportions.

Taken from official board-of-education records, the figures show that Jackson school actually has been heated for the



Hugh D. Tolmie (right), Director of Buildings, Grounds, and Maintenance of Rockford Public Schools, inspects stoker at the R. K. Welsh School with John Sullivan, Janitor. Notice the reserve boiler in the background which was formerly used in combination with the stoker-fired boiler when both were hand-fired.—Photographs courtesy of ECON-O-COL Stoker Division, Cotta Transmission Corp., Rockford, Illinois.

past six years at a fuel cost 31 per cent below what hand-fired heat would have cost during the same six years. This is based on an assumption that the same tonnage of 3 by 6 lump coal would have been burned by hand-firing from 1931 to 1937 as was actually consumed during the preceding six years.

The records show that 1,361 tons of 3 by 6 bituminous lump coal were burned at the Jackson school during the 1925 to 1931 heating seasons. The actual recorded cost of this coal was \$7,390.89, at prices ranging considerably higher per ton than prices prevailing in the depression period. Since a stoker was installed in 1931, 1,110 tons of screenings have been consumed at an actual cost of \$4,599.45. Had 1,361 tons of 3 by 6 been burned in the last six years, they would have cost only \$6,614.46, due to the fact that the board of education contracted for coal during the depression at a much lower price than in the 1925-1931 period. I make allowance for this in pointing out that the difference between \$6,614.46, which we might have been expected to spend for hand-fired heat at the Jackson school on the basis of 1925-1931 tonnage figures, and the \$4,599.45 we actually spent during the last six seasons for stoker-fired heat is nearly 31 per cent.

The records show that from 1925 to 1931, the hand-fired Jackson school boiler used up an average of 227 tons of 3 by 6 coal annually; since 1931, the annual average consumption of screenings has been only 185 tons. The reduction in tonnage is 19 per cent. In the five seasons between 1931 and 1935, the price at which the board was able to contract for screenings averaged \$4.12 per ton. During the same years, 3 by 6 coal purchased for hand-fired boilers was secured at an average price of \$4.86 per ton. This represents a price saving of 15 per cent.

Obviously, fluctuating coal prices and variations in the severity of winters from year to year make it of little significance to compare heating costs until stoker records are available for a period of several seasons. The Jackson school case affords an exceptional opportunity for such comparisons inasmuch as six seasons of experience both before and after installation of the stoker are available for analysis. Establishment of the average price differential between coal used in stokers and coal used in hand-firing was also made exact by the fact that during five of the last six years the board has purchased both types of coal on a competitive-bidding plan.

Unfortunately, although exact figures are available, records for the other 16 stokers

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in use in Rockford cover too short a period to be of great benefit. I have prepared, however, a table showing the experience in eight schools which were changed over in 1935. Coal consumption and total cost during the three seasons of hand-firing preceding the change and during the two seasons of stoker-firing which followed are listed side by side and may be taken for what they are worth. It must be explained that the 1935-36 winter was the severest in Rockford's history, a fact which may be responsible for the less startling nature of this short-term showing.

The figures below show average annual consumption and cost of coal used in the eight schools:

| School | Hand-Firing 1932-35 | | Stoker-Firing 1935-37 | |
|------------|------------------------|------------|--------------------------|------------|
| | Tons | Cost | Tons | Cost |
| Ellis | 160 | \$ 769.60 | 149 | \$ 654.11 |
| Garrison | 124 | 586.52 | 133 | 583.87 |
| Hallstrom | 234 | 1,106.82 | 165 | 724.35 |
| Highland | 105 | 496.65 | 113 | 496.07 |
| Kishwaukee | 227 | 1,085.06 | 237 | 1,040.43 |
| Peterson | 188 | 923.08 | 165 | 724.35 |
| Walker | 150 | 709.50 | 140 | 614.60 |
| Wight | 157 | 752.03 | 163 | 715.57 |
| Totals: | 1,345 | \$6,429.26 | 1,265 | \$5,553.35 |

Cost figures are transcribed without weighting from board records. Taking the average figure of \$4.86 per ton for coal used in hand-firing and \$4.12 per ton for screenings, the \$6,429.26 average cost listed above for 1932-35 would become \$6,536.70, and the \$5,553.35 figure for two seasons of stoker-firing would be \$5,211.80, indicating a 20 per cent saving by the use of stokers.

No article on savings effected by installing stokers would be complete without taking into consideration the costs of stokers, including interest charges on the tax-anti-



Jackson School, Summit and Crosby Streets, Rockford, Illinois, where actual records point to 31 per cent saving over six-year period of stoker-firing.

pation warrants issued to pay for them. The last six stokers purchased by the board of education cost \$5,327, complete and installed, or an average of \$888 each. Because installation in some cases is much more difficult than in others, the individual prices ranged from \$755 to \$1,065.

Taking the \$888 figure as a basis, however, and drawing from Rockford's experience with respect to savings in coal costs, a reasonable analysis indicates that our stokers will pay for themselves in about four to ten years. This estimate takes into consideration two items which our coal cost figures do not embrace, namely, the cost of electric power used to operate the stoker, fixed by the stoker manufacturer at ap-

proximately 18 cents per ton of coal fed, and depreciation at the rate of 5 per cent per annum.

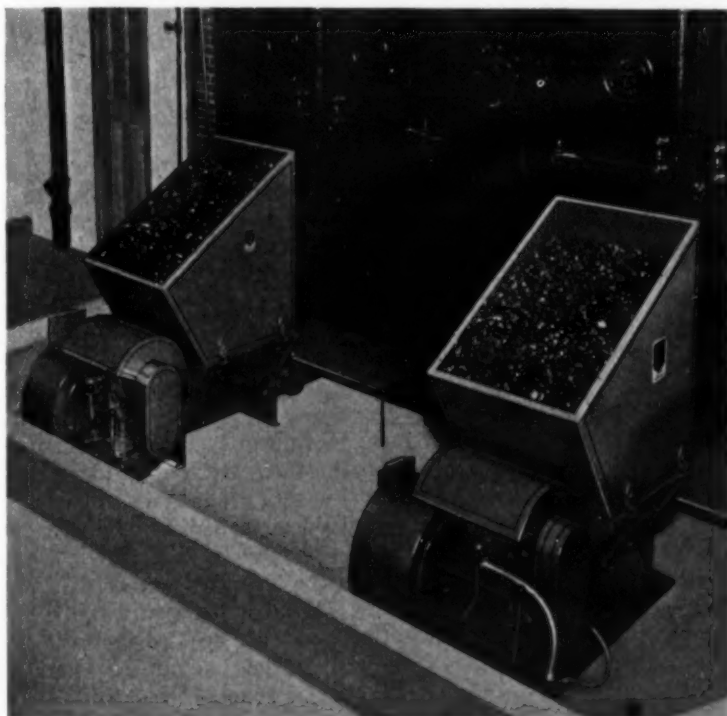
Working this out on the basis of the Jackson school experience, we start with a cost of \$888 for the stoker, against which we must charge 2½ per cent interest, current rate on school-tax warrants, during the first year. The interest charge at this rate is \$22.20. At the end of the first year, therefore, the stoker has cost us \$910.20. What has it saved us by the end of the first year?

The Jackson school stoker uses an average of 185 tons of screenings per year at an average price of \$4.12 per ton. The cost of coal is \$762.20. Adding \$33.30 as the cost of electric power at 18 cents per ton of coal and depreciation at \$44.44 per year, the year's cost of stoker-fired heat is \$839.94.

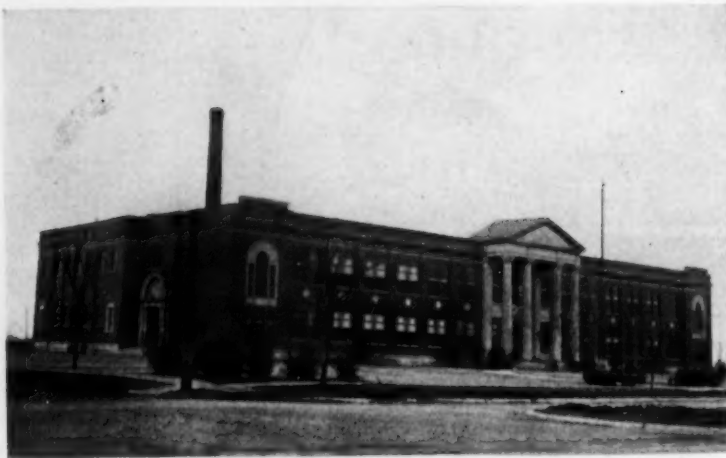
The record indicates 227 tons of 3 by 6 coal would have been burned in the same period at an average price of \$4.86 per ton. The cost of coal for hand-firing would have been \$1,103.22. Thus, the net saving for the first year is \$263.28.

In the second year, therefore, the stoker stood us only \$646.92, after allowing for the amount saved in the first year. Add the 2½ per cent financing charge to this figure and the result is \$663.02. A \$263.28 saving in the second year scales this down to \$399.81; the same procedure lowers the figure to \$146.53 at the end of the third year. Toward the close of the fourth year, the stoker is paid for.

If we wanted to be ultraliberal in figuring, we might substitute for the Jackson school figures those gained from experience in the eight schools equipped with stokers in 1935. As I have indicated before, these figures may be proved inaccurate when we have had the stokers in use over a longer period. But if you follow the same calculations through, step by step, you will find



Spotless interior of boiler room at Barbour School, where two stokers are now installed.



R. K. Welsh School, 2100 Huffman Boulevard, Rockford, Illinois, where one stoker-fired boiler now handles the same job which formerly required two hand-fired boilers.



Barbour School, Montague and Clover Streets, Rockford, Illinois, where two stokers handle heating needs.

that these stokers, even on the showing of two years of use in some of Rockford's worst weather, will pay for themselves in something like ten years.

I have made no allowance for maintenance and repairs in figuring stoker costs. The simple explanation for this apparent oversight is that I have reason to believe repair charges would not affect the results. We have had no trouble of any kind with our stokers and it does not appear likely that the maintenance cost is going to be appreciable in the four to ten years during which they are paying for themselves.

The depreciation allowance of 5 per cent annually is based, of course, on an estimate that the stokers will be good for 20 years of service. Actually, no one knows how long a stoker will last. The wearing parts are few and stokers like those we installed have been in operation elsewhere eight, ten, and twelve years without giving evidence of deterioration. Before leaving the subject of finances, I might mention the important part played by stokers in balancing Rockford's school budget. Our district has been faced with this situation: There has been plenty of cash in the building fund throughout the depression, but the

educational fund has been sorely pressed and still is. State law forbids the use of building-fund money for educational purposes. Stokers, of course, were paid for from the building fund; but the savings in coal bills have accrued exclusively to the depleted educational fund, since fuel to heat classrooms is an educational expense. Hence, a 20- to 30-per-cent reduction in coal bills has liberated many thousands of dollars toward the restoration of teachers' salaries, with the burden of effecting this saving saddled entirely upon the building fund.

So much for relative costs of hand-firing and stoker-firing! Now, about the increased efficiency and labor economies stokers have made possible.

Heating troubles have practically been eliminated by stokers and thermostatic controls in our schools. The thermostats are all set at 72 degrees, a state standard, and when room temperatures attain this figure, the heat supply is cut off. A pressure control on the boiler governs operation of the stoker itself. When steam pressure in the boiler falls below five pounds, the stoker begins to feed coal into the furnace. When pressure has been built up to seven

pounds, the stoker is cut off. At all times there is a steam pressure of five to seven pounds in the boiler, serving as a reservoir from which heat is summoned by individual thermostats into classrooms which need it.

With hand-firing, classrooms get a sudden blast of terrific heat immediately after the janitor loads up the boiler. Stokers feed the coal steadily into the boiler at a rate which can be changed according to the severity of the weather; a fan, also subject to control by the janitor, forces air into the retort at a rate governed by the weather requirements. These factors make even heating simple. The thermostat is constantly on guard, keeping room temperatures up. Pressure control, linked directly with the stoker's operation, assures a constant supply of heat for any part of the building which needs it. Maintenance of a proper fire in the boiler is guaranteed by a "hold-fire" mechanism, governed by a clock, which enables the janitor to set the stoker for operation during a half-minute to fifteen-minute period every half hour, regardless of pressure existing in the boiler.

With hand-firing, the human fireman's first warning that the fire needs more coal is often a sudden drop in the temperature of a hall or classroom in which he is working. With a stoker, the janitor shovels one third to one half of a ton of coal into a large hopper, adjusts the coal-feed and air-feed controls to the proper speeds, and leaves the boiler room to go about other duties, resting assured that the stoker, the thermostats, and the pressure control will do their work and most of his, too. He knows how long it will be before the coal he has loaded will be exhausted. In most cases one loading will last more than half a day in cold weather.

Safety devices installed in our boilers contribute to the janitor's peace of mind as he goes about his work far from the boiler room. If water in the boilers should fall to a dangerously low level, an automatic cut-out turns off the stoker. Regard-

(Concluded on page 32)

Coal consumption at the Jackson School, Rockford, Illinois, during six years immediately preceding installation of a stoker and during the first six heating seasons after the stoker was installed is shown in the following tabulation:

| Season | Without Stoker Tons Consumed (3 by 6 lump) | Cost | Season | With Stoker Tons Consumed (Screenings) | Cost |
|---------|--|------------|---------|--|------------|
| 1925-26 | 236.38 | \$1,264.63 | 1931-32 | 175.93 | \$ 663.71 |
| 1926-27 | 179.33 | 950.42 | 1932-33 | 185.94 | 707.83 |
| 1927-28 | 241.71 | 1,575.96 | 1933-34 | 194.34 | 750.14 |
| 1928-29 | 268.35 | 1,378.80 | 1934-35 | 179.60 | 826.11 |
| 1929-30 | 259.56 | 1,324.82 | 1935-36 | 211.55 | 969.49 |
| 1930-31 | 176.43 | 896.26 | 1936-37 | 163.18 | 682.17 |
| Totals: | 1,361.76 | \$7,390.89 | | 1,110.54 | \$4,599.45 |

Average annual consumption, 3 by 6 lump coal, 1925-31: 227 tons

Average annual consumption, screenings, 1931-37: 185 tons

Saving in tonnage consumed by stoker-firing: 19%

Average school-contract price of 3 by 6 lump, 1931-36: \$4.86 per ton¹

Average school contract price of screenings, 1931-36: \$4.12 per ton

Saving in price per ton as a result of stoker-firing: 15%

Combined saving effected by lower coal consumption and lower per ton price of screenings used with stokers: 31%

¹No 3 by 6 lump purchased in 1936-37 season (all schools now stoker-fired, using screenings).

Contacts with Parents in a High-School Community

Paul R. Pierce and John E. Klest¹

Community co-operation is an essential element in the functioning of a modern school. The support of public-spirited citizens and social agencies in the school community is virtually indispensable in such matters as financing the schools effectively, insuring desirable health and moral conditions in the school vicinity, and providing adequately for indigent pupils. Principals and teachers have frequently chafed under public apathy toward the school's problems and lay criticisms of its services; yet, they repeatedly neglect their strongest weapon both for obtaining support of the community and improving the educational product—the enlisting of parents' active participation in educational activities of the school.

The principle is well established that the school's work is effective in proportion to the extent of its influence on the everyday activities of the pupils. Pupils spend a large proportion of their time outside of school,² and parents can do much to provide encouragement and wholesome condition for practicing activities initiated in the school. Consequently, the understanding and active co-operation of parents are vital to the educative process. Intelligent participation by parents implies, however, that the school staff develop wholesome relations with parents and acquaint them with the roles they should assume in the educational program. The present article deals with initial measures to develop this phase of community co-operation in a new urban high-school community.

The Wells High School, opened in February, 1935, serves a seriously underprivileged community. A social survey conducted by the school showed that in 75 per cent of the families, both parents are foreign born. Forty per cent of the fathers are skilled tradesmen, and 21 per cent are small proprietors. Approximately 50 per cent of the fathers were employed at the time of the survey. Parents generally hold very practical views of education, showing a marked preference for the commercial curriculum. The school plant is new, but from the first has been seriously crowded, necessitating an extended school day.

In September, 1935, a new core curriculum was introduced which particularly directs the activities of pupils and teachers toward the community and everyday

living needs. This curriculum assumes a close relationship between school and home.

Parents' Days as Initial Contacts

It should be understood from the outset that the program here discussed does not supersede or dispense with other established means for gaining community support and co-operation. The teachers at Wells have from the opening of school utilized home visitations as an integral activity of a modern curriculum, and working relations have been developed with social, religious, and public agencies of the community. The present procedure is designed specifically to gain a maximum of mutual co-operation on the part of all parents and teachers in improving the everyday living of the children.

The first step in acquainting parents with educational purposes and activities was to have them visit the school. While a number of teachers made contacts individually with parents during the opening semester, it was planned to attack the problem comprehensively through visiting days during the school year. The purpose was to develop appreciation by parents of the classroom activities of their children, acquaint them with the school environment, and have them meet their children's teachers. A formal organization of parents and teachers was not deemed advisable until parents should feel on easy working relations with teachers. To facilitate discussion of problems common to parents of children in given grade levels and curriculums, and provide opportunity for individual contacts with the homeroom teachers, informal gatherings of parents in each homeroom were scheduled as part of the visiting-day programs. The homeroom, owing to its function as the center of guidance and socializing activities of the pupils, was regarded as the logical unit for establishing and maintaining associations with parents.

To insure convenient and effective visitation of classwork and use of homerooms for meeting purposes, visiting days were scheduled for parents of pupils in given class or year groups. The first visiting day was scheduled for Education Week, and was limited to the parents of 1,164 pupils comprising the 9B class. The parents of pupils in Grades 9A and 10 were scheduled for the second visiting day. Six visiting days were held during the year, one being eliminated owing to inclement weather.

The devising of effective methods for inviting parents proved a problem. In an underprivileged metropolitan community,

general reliance cannot be placed upon verbal messages conveyed by pupils. Telephones are not common in the homes, and when available, are expensive for this purpose. For the first visiting days, letters were mailed to all parents by homeroom teachers, the stationery and stamps being furnished through a local school fund. However, mailing letters to all homes was found to be a heavy financial burden for the school. The plan finally adopted was to send letters to the homes through the pupils, the parents returning an accompanying form indicating their receipt of the invitation and decision regarding its acceptance. Where advisable, the letters were written in the mother-country language of the parent. Teachers of Polish and Italian classes made the writing of letters in these languages a regular class activity.

The Program for Visiting Day

Activities which were introduced in the first visiting day and retained through the year were: (1) a journey by parents through the school building, with visits to such features as the library, shops, gymnasiums, and pool, domestic-science rooms, guidance clinic, attendance-checking center, student-council office, lunchroom, and assembly-hall study periods; (2) visits to classrooms in which children of the visiting parents were members; and (3) an informal meeting of parents and children in the homeroom under the direction of the homeroom teacher. In subsequent semesters, an assembly in which significant phases of the school's program are presented and the principal addresses the parents and answers inquiries, has been added as a climax to the day's activities.

In planning the schedule, the financial status of the homes, the interest and knowledge of the parents concerning education, the attitudes of the pupils regarding the presence of their parents among their teachers and classmates, and the expenditures of time and effort by teachers were found to be factors meriting serious consideration. The crowded condition of the school and the greatly extended school day also presented problems. The afternoon proved convenient for parents to visit, and they were asked to assemble in the school library at 1:15 p.m. After a greeting and announcement of the day's program by the principal, they were organized into groups and conducted through the special rooms previously enumerated by pupil officers of the civic association. After approximately half an hour in thus touring the building, they

¹The senior author is principal and the junior author, a teacher in the Wells High School, Chicago, Ill.

²Franklin Bobbitt, "The Trend of the Activity Curriculum," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXV (December, 1934), 257-226.

were directed to the classrooms of their children, where they remained until 2:30. Thus they witnessed the schoolwork during the busiest and most crowded portion of the school day.

The gatherings in homerooms at 2:30 were considered the crucial element in the visiting day. It was aimed to avoid the atmosphere of formality and restraint often connected with conventional meetings. For programs during the first year, it was decided to present typical homeroom sessions of pupils, twenty minutes in length and planned to stimulate voluntary and easy participation by parents. The activities were usually centered about health practices, civic activities, and ways in which parents might assist in school activities, and were conducted by pupils, leaving the teacher free to meet parents and put them at ease. Where the homeroom teacher deemed it advisable, pupils acted as mother-tongue interpreters. The significance of the homeroom with respect to the school and home living of the pupils was the major theme of the session.

The assembly for parents in the school auditorium was introduced with the purpose of giving a colorful and restful closing touch to the visiting-day program. Here the parents were shown large-group socializing activities in which pupils' creative and dramatic interests were given expression. The assembly was conducted by the pupils under the leadership of the officers of the school's civic association. Pupils not participating in the program were permitted to accompany their parents, those on late shifts being excused from classes for this purpose. The program of May 26, 1936, typical of visiting-day presentations, was as follows:

1. National Anthem and Flag Salute.
2. Selections by school orchestra.
3. Brief talk by the principal.
4. Playlet written and presented by an art class.
5. Style show presented by sewing classes.
6. Dramatization of food-class activities.
7. Selections by girl's glee club.

Appraisal of Visiting-Day Results

Homeroom teachers kept records during the year of the parents' attendance on visiting days, the types of homeroom programs presented, and as accurately as possible, the expressed and visible reactions of parents. At the close of the school year, each teacher made a detailed report on numbers of parents visiting, outcomes of homeroom gatherings, reactions of parents, follow-up contacts with parents, effects of parents' visits on later attitudes of pupils, and her own suggestions for improving visiting-day procedures.

Data from the reports of 84 homeroom teachers showed that 614 parents attended the six visiting days throughout the year. Of these, 88, or 12.7 per cent were fathers, a not unfavorable proportion in view of afternoon employment hours. The types of activities utilized during homeroom gatherings of parents are shown in Table I.

TABLE I. Activities Employed During Homeroom Gatherings of Parents on Visiting Days

| Type of Activity | Number of Times Employed | |
|---|--------------------------|-----------------|
| | Autumn Semester | Spring Semester |
| Teacher talked on school requirements | 26 | 52 |
| Teacher explained educational activities | 28 | 50 |
| Pupils gave talks on schoolwork..... | 6 | 23 |
| Pupils gave group program for visitors | 2 | 11 |
| Parents and teacher engaged in group discussion | 22 | 45 |
| Parents asked about individual problems | 24 | 48 |
| Miscellaneous types of program..... | — | 3 |

In talks on school requirements, the teachers stressed importance of regular attendance, need for regular hours of sleep, use of community libraries by pupils, the noting of teachers' reports to parents, and parental encouragement of pupil progress. In discussing educational activities, teachers emphasized the need of good conditions for carrying on in the home activities initiated in the school.

Data concerning the results of the homeroom gatherings are shown in Table II.

TABLE II. Data from Reports on 41 Autumn, and 80 Spring Homeroom Gatherings for Parents

| Types of Reaction Reported | Number of Cases | |
|---|-----------------|-----------------|
| | Autumn Semester | Spring Semester |
| Gatherings revealing parents' interest in homeroom's functions | 30 | 55 |
| Gatherings resulting in acquaintance of all visiting parents with teacher.... | 34 | 65 |
| Parents expressing favorable reaction to gatherings | — | 77 |
| Voluntary calls on teachers resulting from gatherings..... | — | 20 |
| Gatherings judged more effective owing to presence of pupils..... | 21 | 42 |
| Gatherings judged less effective owing to presence of pupils..... | 3 | 16 |

The data of Table II show, regardless of the handicaps connected with a new and crowded school, an encouraging increase in the number of contacts effected with parents during the second semester. An appreciable amount of evidence of parents' interest in the school's activities is also indicated. More detailed data from the reports revealed that the parents were especially interested in conferring with



With the Right Guidance They Can't Go Wrong. — Rochester Democrat-Chronicle.

teachers individually concerning problems connected with their children's education.

General reactions of parents regarding their visit included expressions of admiration concerning the equipment and atmosphere of the school, the variety and attractiveness of educational offerings, the resourcefulness of pupils in conducting meetings and other pupil activities. The parents expressed pleasure at being asked to see the school in action and generally indicated a desire to co-operate in the school's work. They especially commented on the difference between opportunities offered by Wells and the schools of their day.

Teacher appraisals indicated a very general conviction that the visiting days meet the chief purposes for which they were established. It was felt that a new bond was formed between visiting parents and the teachers, and that this was evidenced in the improved attitudes of many pupils toward their school responsibilities. In twenty cases, teachers reported appreciable improvement in the effort of pupils; in three cases, marked improvement. Six cases of definitely improved attendance and two cases of increased interest in extracurricular activities were reported. One pupil was reported as definitely improving in personal appearance and another as completely "losing a serious inferiority complex."

Suggestions of teachers for improving the visiting-day procedures included greater provision for individual conferences with parents, opportunity for parents to meet all teachers of their children, and increased means of overcoming the language handicap in conferences between teacher and parent. Many suggested a night session of the school, in order to permit more fathers to visit.

Parents Have Helped Teachers

The program described represents an approach to the problem of obtaining the active participation of the home in the educative process directed by the school. The contacts of parents with the school and teachers are but the beginning of developing active interest and understanding of the parents in the responsibility the home should assume. The chief assistance rendered by parents will not affect technical subjects designed for personal uses, such as algebra or shorthand, but the broad subject fields of general education. Teachers will have the responsibility of assigning the portion of general education which parents can effectively assume and training them in carrying it out. The data presented indicate clearly certain handicaps which must be overcome. Teachers themselves will doubtless require additional training before they can effectively guide the parents. Years of experimentation may be necessary to develop efficient techniques for the purpose. Nevertheless, the study and experimentation involved will be amply justified in the improved habits of everyday living acquired by the pupils.

Bettering School Maintenance by Accounting

Donald D. Cunliff¹

School plants of the United States, involving an investment of public money running into billions of dollars, must be maintained in an efficient operating condition. Sound administrative policy requires that the total annual cost of furnishing school-plant facilities be kept as low as possible for the type of service rendered. If this ideal is to be achieved, some form of accounting must be devised to the end that actual unit costs applicable to the work performed may be obtained. The development of correct units for use in such accounting necessitates a consideration of the entire problem of supplying the physical plant.

The individuals having charge of the construction, repair, and renewal of school plants should be governed more by ultimate economy than by first cost. Buildings and equipment suffer the effects of physical deterioration, which proceeds during every day of the year, until a point of inefficiency is reached when it involves an economic loss to continue the units in operation. If this physical deterioration is to a large extent counteracted by a liberal repair policy, efficient service will be assured and the useful life of the unit greatly extended. On the other hand, a parsimonious repair policy will result in inefficient service, and the useful life of the unit will be shortened beyond what might reasonably be anticipated. Such a shortsighted policy is quite likely to result in actual economic loss, as the additional depreciation resulting therefrom will more than offset the annual repair cost which apparently has been saved. No real economy is effected if regular painting of exterior woodwork is deferred when such a practice leads to the replacement of the woodwork at an early date. In like manner no real saving is effected if a building is inadequately maintained if the life of the structure is shortened to eighty per cent of its normal life expectancy. It is to be regretted that school accounting makes no provision for depreciation charges, for if the element of cost were recognized the now hidden cost of deferred maintenance would be brought to light and the true relationship between first cost, maintenance, and ultimate cost would at once become apparent. Definite responsibility would thus be placed on those in charge of buildings and maintenance to account for their policies and practices.

What is Maintenance?

The term "Maintenance of School Plant" in its broadest sense may be considered as:

1. *Repairs* or the act of keeping, as nearly as possible, the individual units of the school plant in their original state of operating efficiency throughout their useful lives; and
2. *Replacement*, or the act of reproducing those individual units of the school plant which have reached the end of their useful lives.

It is, of course, realized that this definition is considerably more inclusive than that indicated by the present accounting rules of either the California State Department of Education or the United States Office of Education (Bulletin No. 24), in that the item of replacement of individual buildings as well as the replacement of items of equipment is included under the general term "Maintenance of School Plant." In other words the proposed terminology contemplates that once capital has been invested it is to be maintained to perpetuity.

The distinction between "repairs" and "replacement" is, at times, difficult to determine. A technical viewpoint in accord with standard commercial practice is to consider, at all times, complete operating units such as buildings, desks, lathes, etc. Complete operating units are generally composed of a number of individual elements with varying useful lives, some of which must, of necessity, be completely replaced one or more times before the useful life of the entire unit has expired. A building with a useful life of fifty years may have a composition roof with a life of twenty years. The replacement of the roof at the expiration of its useful life is an item of repair, while the replacement of the entire building at the end of its useful life is not. Similarly, the replacement of a damaged desk top is a repair, while the replacement of the entire wornout desk is not. In general, it may be stated that any work performed on an individual operating unit of the school plant, not involving the actual replacement of the unit, should be considered as a repair, but that the complete replacement of an individual operating unit, however small the unit, should be considered as replacement. There are two ends to all elements of the school plant, a physical and an economic end. The former comes when the element is so worn out that it cannot be repaired and must be replaced, the latter when the cost of repairs is so great that it will be economy in the long run to replace it at once. The economic test to ascertain when repairs should be stopped, and the element replaced, may be made by use of the following formula:

$$X = \frac{A + CI + R}{N}$$

Where X = The annual expense of the new element

A = The sinking fund to be paid each year to equal C at the end of N years

C = The first cost of the element

I = The rate of interest

R = The estimated total cost of repairs if distributed over the entire life of the element

N = The life in years of the element

This is the scientific and engineering method of determining when individual elements of a school plant should be replaced. The only consideration which might modify this principle is the question of inconvenience to the educational program while a major element of school plant is under process of replacement. The determination of procedure must, of course, be made for each individual case. However, the principle of the formula is correct and, when school districts have had a larger experience and repair records are kept in more intelligent detail, there will be little difficulty in determining the variables in the formula.

Why Have a Cost System?

A maintenance-cost system should be sufficiently complete to develop adequate unit costs for the different features of the work performed. In this connection, it is necessary to emphasize the distinction between general accounting and cost accounting, the one leading up to the balance sheet and the other to an analysis of production costs. General accounting consists of maintaining a proper record of the receipts and disbursements of the various funds of the school district, while cost accounting consists of the accumulation of expenditures made for production by determining quantities produced and by developing their unit costs.

One purpose of the cost system is to develop data which can be safely used as a guide in predetermining the production cost of future work. Maintenance work is generally performed under an authorization which stipulates an allowable estimated-total expenditure which must be determined before the actual cost of the work is available. This estimated cost must be developed through an examination of the proposed work, including plans and specifications if any are available, to ascertain the quantities and character of the work to be done. The cost of the job is then estimated, based upon the quantities of various types of work and upon unit costs developed through past experience.

Another object of the cost system is to control the cost of production while work is in progress. The cost of production of the various units of work must be care-

¹Mr. Cunliff, who is Supervisor of Construction of the Los Angeles School District, holds that practical accounting is one of the important means for improving the maintenance of school plants and equipment. Such accounting is necessarily based upon the development of correct units of cost. The paper formed the basis of an address to the California Association of Public-School Business Officials, March 17, 1937.

fully watched during the process of the work so that the actual cost of performing it will not exceed the estimated cost and thereby entail additional expenditures. A purchasing agent may be very efficient and obtain supplies and materials at very low prices, but if proper control of labor costs is lacking, the foreman in charge can cause greater losses in a short time than the purchasing agent and others can save during the entire life of the job.

It is essential that some rational plan of subdividing group feature of the work performed by the maintenance division be followed if full utilization is to be obtained from cost data developed. Estimates should be prepared using standard approved units for all subdivisions of the work, and job costs should be kept on the basis of these same units thus effecting a comparison of unit costs during the progress of the job as well as providing unit costs for future work. Performance records or average yearly cost records for the various elements of buildings or items of equipment should be reduced to the same units so that information is readily available for an impartial determination of the facts concerning the relative lives and average annual cost of various competing types of materials.

How Detailed Shall Costs Be Figured?

The types and character of work performed by different school districts varies to such an extent that it is doubtful if it is possible to prepare a standard of cost accounts applicable to the work executed by any and all districts. The extent of detailed information which should be accumulated is a problem to be determined by the individual district, bearing in mind the number of buildings involved, the average maintenance budget, and the use to which detailed information may be utilized. The various features of the work *should be broken down only to whatever extent is necessary to furnish data having a productive value greater than the cost of obtaining the additional information.* The extent to which detailed information should be carried will be influenced by the following factors:

1. The degree of interest in determining the factors which contribute to a significant degree in placing the particular item in a position of importance in the maintenance budget such as quality of materials used, skill utilized in fabrication, correctness of plans and specifications originally utilized, together with the use and abuse to which the item is subjected.
2. The cost of obtaining the data.
3. The practicable application that may be made of the data once developed.
4. The economies that may be derived from the improvement in quality of materials used, added skill in fabrication and improvements in planning.
5. The degree to which greater care may be exercised in the operation and protection of the particular item.
6. The degree of refinement to which the data may be subjected.

Productive industry has adopted refinements in maintenance accounting, in part, for the purpose of determining elements

in construction and mechanical equipment in need of improvement so as to reduce the cost of repairs under normal operating conditions. It is, of course, not practicable for a school district to effect overnight a complete maintenance-cost-accounting system capable of furnishing detailed information including unit costs of the various elements of the school plant. The development of such data should be over a period of years, accumulating information relative to the various elements in the order of their importance in the maintenance budget. It would appear that the following steps should be followed in accumulating data with reference to school buildings and a similar procedure followed in the development of information regarding grounds and equipment:

Steps in Cost Accounting

1. Accounting of maintenance expenditures by individual buildings

The average annual costs to be reduced to units of measurement such as gross floor area and area of actual usable space such as square feet of area of classrooms, offices, special rooms, etc., but not including auxiliary facilities such as corridors, stairs, boiler rooms, etc.

Accumulated annual unit costs based upon such a unit in addition to providing data for future budgets would indicate the following:

- a) Relative economy of the various buildings in the district.
- b) Relative economy of the various types of construction originally utilized. In this connection, if a wide variation in unit prices occurred between buildings of the same general type, attention could be immediately directed to correct the condition causing the variation.

2. Subaccounting of expenditures by individual buildings in the following subdivisions:

- a) Structural frame
- b) Mechanical systems
- c) Painting
- d) Miscellaneous

The average annual costs by buildings and the above subdivisions would be reduced to the same units of measurement as outlined in the previous paragraph.

Accumulated annual unit costs based upon such a subdivision would provide more accurate data for future budgets than that obtainable in a single unit price and in addition, would indicate to a certain extent the major grouping in which any variation from the average unit cost of comparable buildings occurred, thus providing information relative to the actual element causing the variation.

3. Subaccounting of expenditures by individual buildings in the following subdivisions by the units indicated:

- | | |
|----------------------------|--|
| a) Structural frame | Sq. Ft. of building area and Sq. Ft. of useful floor area |
| b) Heating and ventilating | Cu. Ft. of building heated |
| c) Plumbing | Number of fixtures |
| d) Electric installation | Number of outlets |
| e) Painting | Sq. Yds. of surface painted |
| f) Roofing | Squares of roof area |
| g) Finish flooring | Sq. Ft. of building area and Sq. Ft. of useful floor area |
| h) Blackboards | Sq. Ft. of blackboard area |
| i) Miscellaneous | Sq. Ft. of building area and Sq. Ft. of useful floor area |

Accumulated annual unit costs based upon such a subdivision would provide fairly accurate data for future budgets and would indicate the cost of work of the most important phases of all building-maintenance work, thus immediately providing information relative to the particular type of work upon which study should be directed to effect economies either in maintenance or future construction.

4. Subaccounting of expenditures by a break-

down of items listed under paragraph 3 above into the main elements in each classification.

For example, heating and ventilating may be broken down into the following: boilers, oil burners, vacuum pumps, air compressor, unit heaters, thermostats, oil tanks, oil pumps, steam traps, ventilating fans, etc.

Accumulated annual unit costs based upon such a break-down would furnish accurate data for future budgets as well as indicate the most economical types of equipment in use, thus providing the means to eliminate uneconomical materials or equipment in future buildings.

For example: Is it more economical in the long run to install a 20-year specification composition roof or a 10-year roof? Is it more economical to install slate blackboards or composition? Is it more economical to paint classroom walls with washable wall paint or with calcimine?

Officials having charge of buildings must continually answer questions of this character, and unless proper data is available their decision must be made on such information as they can accumulate on the outside. Such outside data in many cases may be colored to suit the desires of some special interest, thus subjecting school officials to continual embarrassment in answering why certain materials are used.

The accumulation of detailed information of this character would establish scientifically the useful lives of the most important elements in the structure and indicate the most economical means of maintaining these elements. It would further indicate faulty materials and uneconomic types of construction which could be avoided in the future.

Uses of Cost Data

Productive industry is constantly expending vast sums of money in research work and detailed studies of both the qualities of materials and the most scientific methods of fabrication, for the combined purpose of improving the product and eliminating unnecessary waste. The application of a procedure of a somewhat similar nature, in the care of the most important items of maintenance of the school plant, whereby the results of outside research, as well as local experience, might be utilized, would be a significant forward step.

Proper detailed information, once acquired, would provide the basis for a long-term comprehensive-maintenance program, involving not only the replacement of such units of school plant as have served their full useful lives, but also the periodic upkeep operation of the various elements in the individual units. The formulation of a comprehensive "repair" program should include all items subject to periodic attention and which would then become more or less routinized. For example, a schedule should be drawn up, indicating for each building, how often the exterior woodwork is to be painted. In like manner, similar schedules should be drawn up for all other elements in the building requiring periodic attention—floors, walls, roofs, mechanical systems, etc., as well as for various types of equipment.

A long-term comprehensive-maintenance program, if carefully prepared, would insure the performance of necessary periodic repairs at the time of need, elim-

(Concluded on page 81)



General Exterior View, Miami Beach Senior High School, Miami Beach, Florida. The building, which is in the Mediterranean style, harmonizes beautifully with the prevailing style of the houses in the neighborhood.

The Miami Beach Senior High School, Miami Beach, Florida

Grace Brown¹

The original nucleus of the present Miami Beach Public School System, which functions as a unit under the direction of a supervising principal, was a portion of what is now the Miami Beach Central Elementary School.

The story of the Beach system is almost inseparably interwoven with that of the city itself. The school—and the same could almost be said of the community—has come into existence within the lifetime of the present high-school generation. Both afford an interesting study in school and community achievement. And certainly there is nothing in the thoroughly modern beauty of either to suggest the mangrove swamp from which they have so lately emerged.

In 1920, the school opened with an auditorium and six classrooms, covering grades one through eight. In 1925-26, the ninth grade was added, and in 1926, work was begun on the Ida M. Fisher high-school building. The latter was turned into a junior high only this year, when the Federal PWA building program was completed. This project, No. 8173, comprised the following: a new Miami Beach senior high school and gymnasium (with which



A study hall in the Miami Beach Senior High School is always a busy place. The study halls are amply lighted and are ventilated in all weather. Breeze windows on the corridor side of the room provide for a constant stream of air.

¹Publicity Director, Miami Beach Junior-Senior High Schools.



The gymnasium is designed in a conservative modernistic style that harmonizes with the main buildings in the group.

structures this article is principally concerned); the South Beach elementary and the North Beach elementary schools, and additions to the Central elementary school, the total project amounting to a cost of \$600,000, excluding equipment, and approved in a Miami Beach freeholders' election, June 4, 1935.

The Miami Beach Senior High School

This structure, opened for occupancy September last, came in welcome relief to the almost intolerably overcrowded condition prevailing the year before. Along with the other buildings in a new and truly modern school plant, it will stand for many years to come as a fitting monument to the vision and wise leadership of the board of trustees and supervising principal, to the generously school-minded citizens of Miami Beach, and to

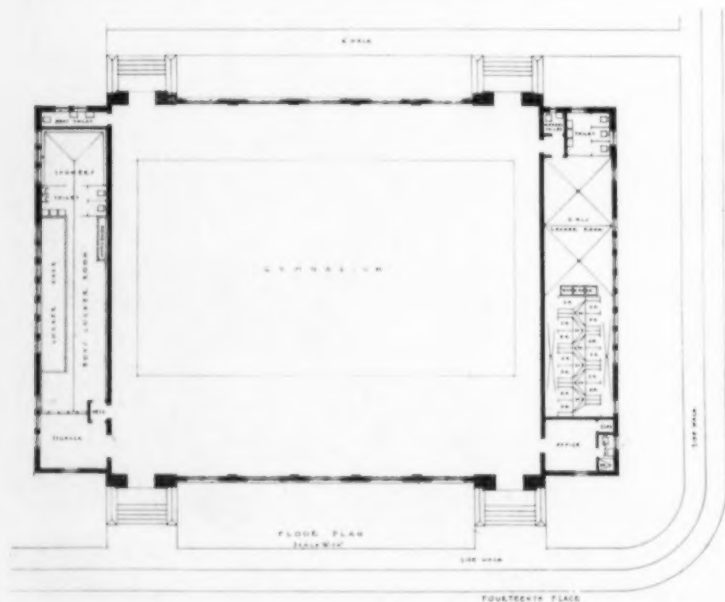
the Federal program of Public Works under the direction of which a dream became reality.

The senior-high building, somewhat in the shape of a huge "F," connects with the Fisher Junior High School by means of two corridors. Both schools use the cafeteria, auditorium, and several special departments of the older structure, and the study halls and library facilities of the new. Both share, also, the industrial-arts and the home-economics departments located in a two-story annex, erected about three years ago adjoining the Fisher structure.

The new building, housing grades 10, 11 and 12, is of Italian Renaissance architecture, and built, cloister style, around patios. All rooms open on wide corridors, the latter being for the most part on the north and west sides of the building, thus affording maximum protection from rains,

and permitting rooms the maximum window space on the east and south sides from which come the best light and ventilation. The roof is of tile. In keeping with the newer trend, the building is on the unit plan: Each classroom consists of two units, with all windows in sets of three, permitting erection or removal of partitions as changing needs might dictate.

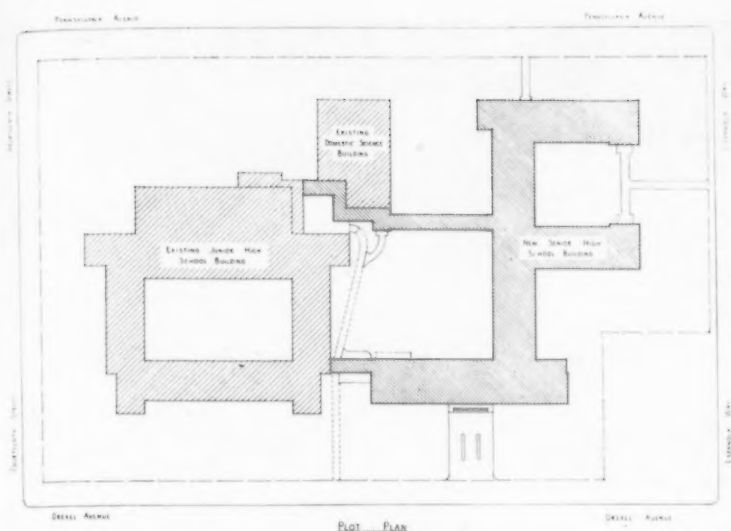
The building is of reinforced concrete frame, tile walls and stucco, with a foundation resting on precast, reinforced concrete pilings and caps. All floors are of mastic composition, except in the chemistry laboratories, corridors, and toilets. The last mentioned are of tile, with white tile walls extending to the ceiling. The wide stairs have their steps of extra width and of low rise and are of poured concrete reinforced with cast-iron tread, with heavy iron handrails on both sides as an added safety precaution.



Floor Plan, Gymnasium, Miami Beach Senior High School, Miami Beach, Florida.—August Geiger and Robert A. Taylor, Associate Architects, Miami Beach, Florida.



The chemistry laboratory is fitted with the newest type of pupils' tables, and is equipped with ample apparatus for a thorough course. Students need not stand up to the tables, but can work comfortably seated.



Plot Plan, Miami Beach Senior High School, Miami Beach, Florida.—August Geiger, Architect, Miami Beach, Florida.



One of the seven kitchens in the cookery laboratory of the Miami Beach Senior High School, Miami Beach, Florida.

Radiators are installed and ready, should the thermometer decide to take an uncomfortable drop. In continuous use, however, is the elaborate refrigerating plant giving circulating ice water to the several drinking fountains on each floor.

The school is equipped with a two-way radio system by which the announcer at the controls can speak to all or individual rooms and by which the teacher or pupil may reply without leaving his or her desk. Classes change, in their hour periods, to a musical note from the radio.

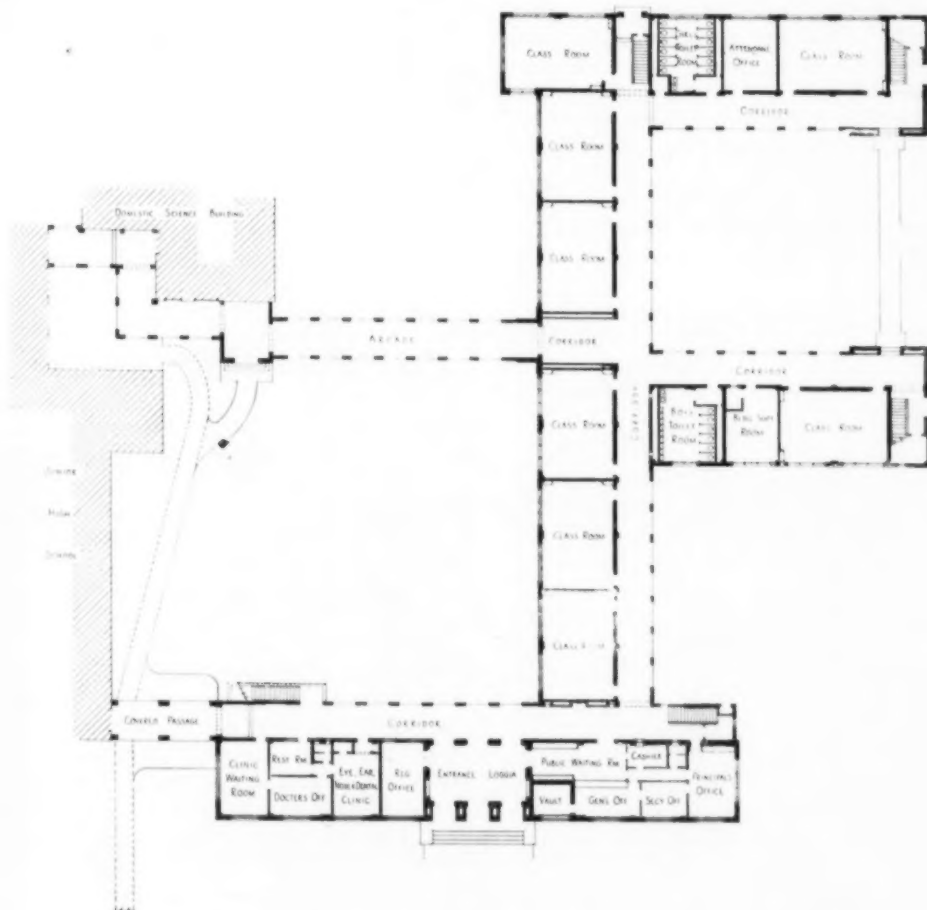
All rooms are equipped with telephones and with electric clocks and signals, and very special attention has been paid to ventilation and lighting. Classroom desks are of a new adjustable type, walnut finish, locker equipped. Two-way roll shades prevent glare without restricting the light. Blackboards are of slate, and each room has a bulletin board. Ceilings are of the acoustical Temlok.

On the first floor is the large lobby at the entrance—with glassed-in display cases and bulletin boards and with grilled

gateway—extending from the street entrance to the enclosed patio. There is the clinic, containing reception room, office, toilet, rest room and medical-inspection room. This is the housing for an extensive program of pupil-health check-up and first aid. On the first floor, also, are the administrative offices, spacious and well-planned, including fireproof vault, waiting room, registrar's office, tuition and principal's office, and board room. Student council and PTA rooms, defective-speech clinic, toilets for boys and girls, and eight classrooms are on this floor.

The second floor contains two large study halls, the library, toilets, rest rooms for men and women teachers, storage rooms, and five classrooms.

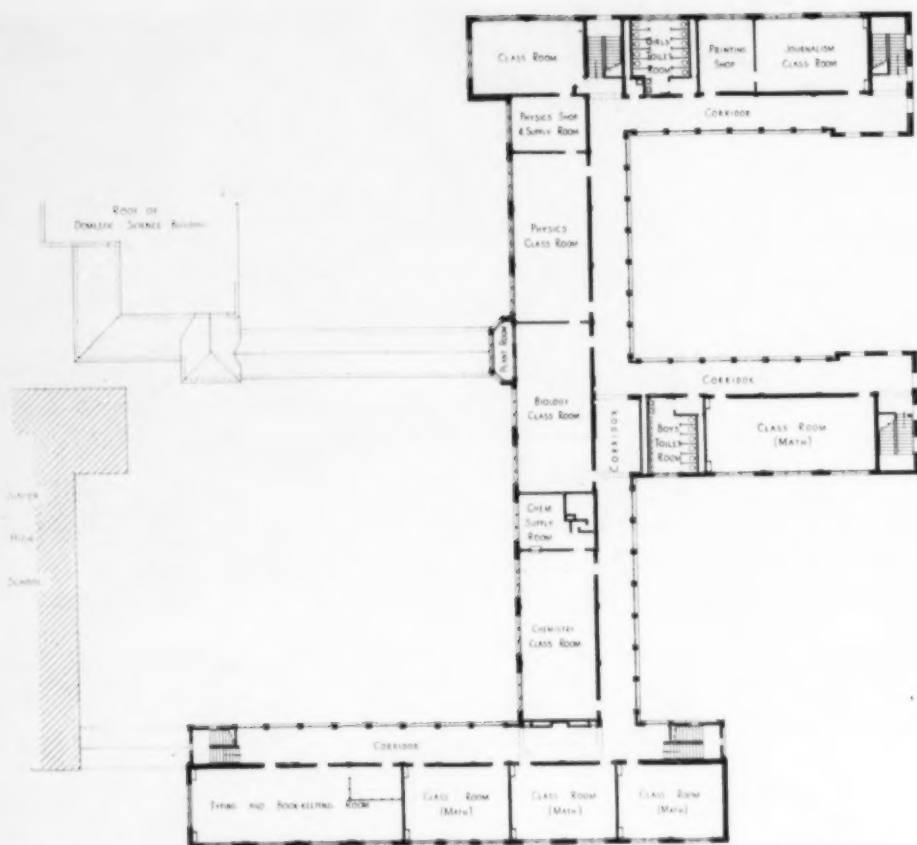
On the third floor are the commercial department (a room 60 by 20 feet, with semiprivate office and conference room and equipped with 35 folding-head stenographers' desks, suitable for bookkeeping and shorthand when folded); special mechanical-drawing room, journalism department, five regular classrooms and the science department, boys' and girls' toilets, and general storage rooms.



First Floor Plan, Miami Beach Senior High School, Miami Beach, Florida. — August Geiger, Architect, Miami Beach, Florida.



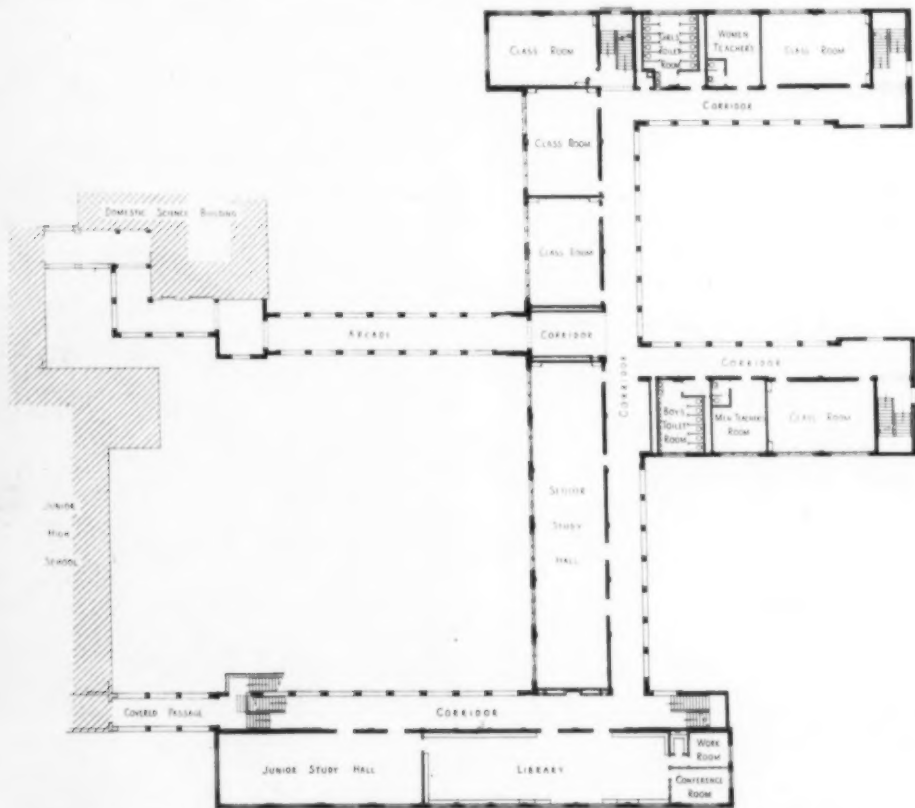
The typing room of the commercial department is a long, narrow room adequately lighted, and the ceiling is a sound-absorbing material, and the floor is covered with asphalt tile, which also reduces sound.



Third Floor Plan, Miami Beach Senior High School, Miami Beach, Florida.

Worthy of special note is the science department. The chemistry laboratory contains the Lincoln type desk. Adjoining are the supply and "dark" rooms. In the physics laboratory are two-student oak desks with tops of acid-resisting birch, equipped with two gas jets, alternating

current, and connected with the laboratory switchboard. On each desk are two support rods. Available also are ample sink and storage space, and air jets supplied by a compressor in a near-by store-room. Adjoining the physics room is the supply room equipped with elaborate



Second Floor Plan, Miami Beach Senior High School, Miami Beach, Florida.—
August Geiger, Architect, Miami Beach, Florida.



Mr. Sidney H. Ellison, Supervising Principal of the Miami Beach Schools, at the radio control board of the Miami Beach Senior High School. The installation allows for broadcasting to all the rooms in the building or to individual rooms as may be necessary.

switchboard for alternating and direct current. Lightproof shades are at all windows in the physics laboratory. A feature of the biology division is a plant room with a soil bed beneath the windows.

The new high school is equipped throughout with the best electric-lighting facilities available. This applies also to the well-lighted corridors, light-protected stairways and exits, and to the patios furnished with powerful floodlights.

The New Gymnasium

We regret that lack of space will permit but brief reference to this beautiful new structure, part of the above-mentioned PWA project, built on Pennsylvania Avenue, just across the street from the rear of the new high school. This is a one-story building composed of three units — the gymnasium proper, the girls' locker room and the boys' locker room. The gymnasium proper has a clearance height of 20 feet through the underside of the bottom chord of the steel trusses. The girls' locker-room wing includes the office, a private toilet, locker room, toilets, and a public toilet for women. The boys' locker-room wing includes storage room for apparatus, locker room, toilets, shower room, and public toilet for men.

The building rests on foundations of precast reinforced concrete piles and caps. The superstructure is a combination of steel and reinforced-concrete columns. The structural part of the roof over the main portion of the building is composed of steel trusses and purlins covered with a 2 by 2-inch pine sheathing. The finished roof surface is a 20-year bonded built-up



A corner in the library of the Miami Beach Senior High School. The walls and bookcases are finished in light colors. The ceiling is made entirely of sound-absorbing tiles, and the floor is a quiet asphalt tile. Tables and chairs have been especially selected for comfort, mobility, and quiet.

roof. The structural part of the roof over the locker-room wings is composed of wood rafters covered with wood sheathing.

The gymnasium is made light and airy by the use of large austral-type windows on all four sides. The finished floor of the gymnasium proper is of hard maple on wood joists. The floor is 100 by 88 feet, with locker room at each end. The basketball court is 84 by 50 feet, allowing for two cross-playing courts. There are bleachers on both sides with a seating capacity of 1,000.

The gymnasium is directed by the physical-education department and its work is supplemented by an inclusive program of sports and recreation, sponsored by the city of Miami Beach, which has placed at the disposal of the schools all the facilities of its playground system.

Conclusion

To all her advantages of climate, and her location by the sea, Miami Beach has added school facilities which in program, teaching staff, and plant facilities are equal to those of the best American cities. The school system is confronted by many and difficult problems. In the past few years the school population has increased nearly 300 per cent each year. The pupils have come from nearly every state in the Union and from remote corners of the globe. Many stay only a few weeks; others only a few months. They arrive with every possible kind of background. To immediately place them in classes where they may take up studies without disadvantage resulting from the change, and to carry forward so that they again

may resume the threads of their work in their home communities, is the continuous task facing the Beach schools. An unusually high percentage of the high-school enrollment plans to attend college. Some cannot, and others perhaps, should not go to higher institutions. To meet the unusual situations which are constantly arising a really up-to-the-minute school plant has become an urgent necessity. None of the equipment or facilities described are superfluous or luxuries. The school is simply bending every effort to be abreast of the day and its problems, or even a lap ahead.

RESPONSIBLE BIDDERS ON SCHOOL CONTRACTS

The experiences which the school authorities have encountered in customarily awarding contracts to the so-called "lowest bidder" have not always proved advantageous, and have led to the thought that the "lowest responsible" bidder must be recognized.

In a recent report, made by C. L. Woolbridge, superintendent of buildings for the Pittsburgh board of education, he discusses this phase in the awarding of school contracts. He says: "The determination of the lowest bidder is automatic as the bids speak for themselves. The term 'responsible bidder,' however, requires serious consideration by the board before a contract may be awarded. The board interprets responsibility in this act to mean first of all financial responsibility. Does the contractor have sufficient funds to finance the work bid on? The contractor may submit a very good financial

statement, but an investigation may disclose that he is loaded up with work beyond his capacity and should not take on any further contracts.

"His credit must be investigated to determine if he pays his bills promptly.

"His responsibility for doing good work must be investigated. This requires investigation as to whether his work has been satisfactory under past contracts.

"We must determine if he has sufficient plant and tools to carry out his work.

"We must investigate his general reputation as a businessman."

The belief that the accompaniment of a bond for the faithful performance of a contract affords sufficient protection has not in all instances worked out in a satisfactory manner. When the contractor for want of equipment and financial ability causes embarrassing delays or defaults altogether, the bonding company is supposed to cover all losses.

But here is what happens: The bonding company may be extremely slow in determining upon the actual amount of the loss sustained. The contract may be awarded to the next lowest bidder which is usually higher than the original bid. The bonding company may quibble here as to the compensatory moneys to be paid.

After all the negotiations have been gone into, requiring extra sessions on the part of committees, conferences with contractors and bonding agents, the elements of delay, annoyance, and embarrassment come to the surface and the question may well be asked whether the lowest bidder is really the "lowest responsible" bidder.

FEDERAL RELATIONSHIP TO STATE AND LOCAL EDUCATION

The president has appointed a committee of eighteen representing various governmental and nongovernmental agencies, to make a study of the entire subject of federal relationship to state and local conduct of education. The committee will carry on a study of past undertakings, existing activities, and proposed aids to be undertaken in the future.

Of the eighteen members of the committee, five represent agencies of the federal government, three are from the profession of education, and the remainder represent labor, business, and other fields of work.

Among the experts and specialists who will have charge of various units of the studies for the general committee are Mr. Lloyd E. Blauch; Mr. Doak S. Campbell, director of the division of surveys and field studies, George Peabody College for Teachers; Dr. Walter D. Cocking, Nashville, Tenn.; Dr. Newton Edwards, University of Chicago; Dr. Paul R. Mort, Columbia University, New York City; Dr. John Dale Russell, University of Chicago; Dr. Payson Smith, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass. Dr. Raymond M. Hughes, president-emeritus of Iowa State College, is serving as general consultant and will assist in co-ordinating the various groups of studies.

Arrangements have been made for the co-operation of a number of important federal agencies. The National Resources Committee will co-operate in studies of the social and economic aspects of federal relations to education. Among the nongovernmental agencies is the Council of Chief State School Officers, which will offer its full co-operation in connection with the field studies of the committee. The Educational Policies Commission is also making plans for a survey of educational administration throughout the United States.



General Exterior View, Auburn Senior High School, Auburn, New York. — Hillger & Beardsley, Architects, Auburn, New York.

The Auburn Senior High School — A Modern Building in Colonial Style

The new Senior High School at Auburn, New York, is a depression project in which a forward-looking community went forward courageously to erect a needed building in which a broad educational program might be offered to the children. The building was planned in the spring of 1931 and contracts were let in August of that year. The building was erected during the fall and winter and occupied in September, 1932.

The building occupies a site consisting of 46 acres, which provides not only space for the building but also ample playgrounds and an athletic center. Since the photograph was taken the front of the building has been landscaped.

The building faces a main highway to the south and is so arranged that the classroom areas have east or west light. The basement contains the boiler room, space for coal storage, and ventilating apparatus. Toilet, locker, and shower rooms are accommodated under the gymnasium. The entire front area of the first floor is occupied by the auditorium, the offices, and the cafeteria. The classrooms are in the wing connecting the auditorium with the gymnasium. The arrangement is such that a further wing can be built extending back from the cafeteria corridor. The second-floor arrangement is similar to that of the first except that the space above the cafeteria is occupied by laboratories, a music

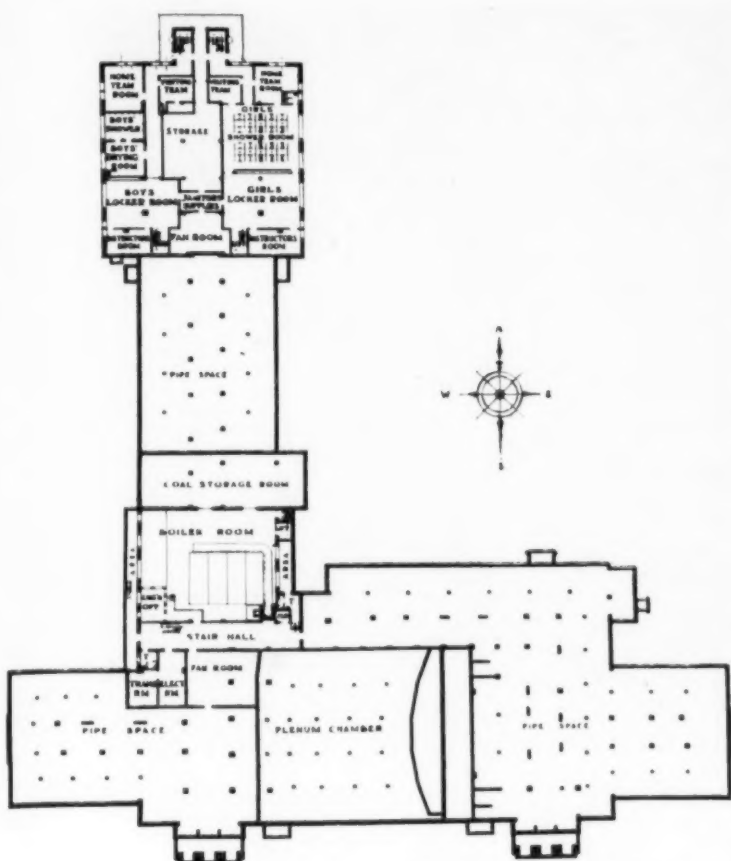
room, and a classroom. The library and a large study hall are centrally located above the offices.

The building follows a free Colonial design carried out in old Virginia brick and artificial gray stone. The interior construction is of concrete and steel. The corridors are finished with terrazzo floors, tile wains-

coting, plaster walls, and sound-absorbing tile ceilings. Classrooms are finished with linoleum floors, plaster walls, and celotex ceilings. The gymnasium which is arranged to be divided into two parts for boys' and girls' classes, has floors of maple, walls of tapestry brick, and a ceiling finished with fireproof, sound-absorbing tile. Toilet



The library in the Auburn Senior High School, Auburn, New York, is a bright, cheerful room in which the entire academic life of the school centers. The room has linoleum floors and the ceiling has been treated with sound-absorbing tiles so that a maximum of quiet is preserved at all times.



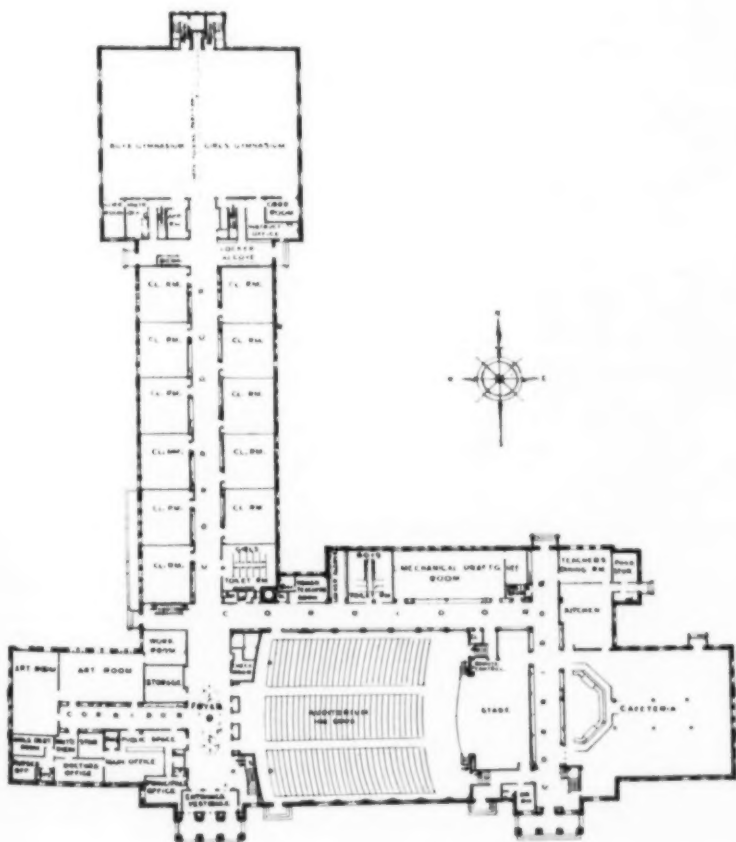
Foundation and Basement Plan, Auburn Senior High School, Auburn, New York. — Hillger & Beardsley, Architects, Auburn, New York.



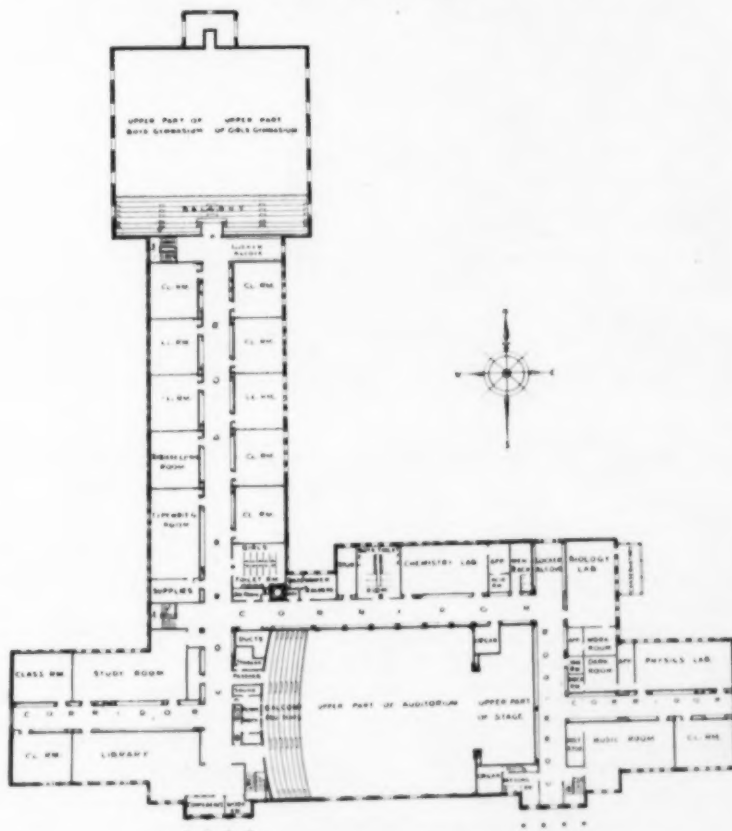
Noise is one of the greatest problems in the commercial departments of high schools. The typing room in the Auburn Senior High School is entirely made up of sound-absorbing tiles and the floor is battleship linoleum.



Foyer and Main Corridor of the Auburn Senior High School, Auburn, New York.



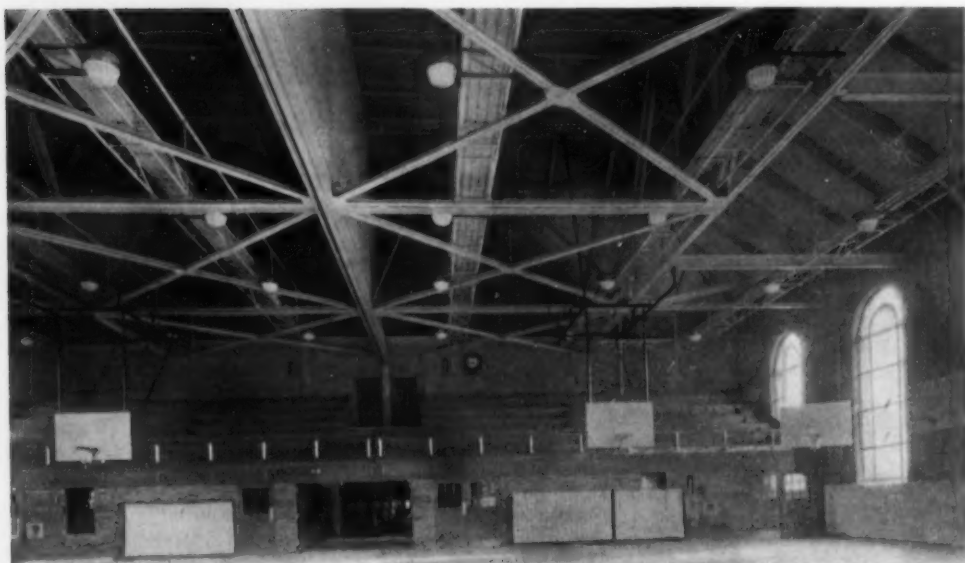
First Floor Plan, Auburn Senior High School, Auburn, New York. — Hillger & Beardsley, Architects, Auburn, New York.



Second Floor Plan, Auburn Senior High School, Auburn, New York.



The auditorium of the Auburn Senior High School has been treated in a simplified Colonial style in harmony with the exterior of the building.



The gymnasium of the Auburn Senior High School, Auburn, New York, has bleachers on two sides. The room is arranged so that it can be cut into two parts for use by boys and girls separately.

rooms are finished with terrazzo floors, Tennessee marble wainscoting, and plaster ceiling.

The building is heated by means of low-pressure steam, and all instructional areas are equipped with unit ventilators. Central fans provide ventilation for the gymnasium and auditorium.

The building is planned for an ordinary pupil capacity of 1,000 and has 1,250 pupil stations. The cost was \$580,000 for construction and \$70,000 for equipment. On the basis of the cubic content, the cost was 23.5 cents; on the pupil basis, \$692.

The architects were Messrs. Hillger and Beardsley of Auburn, New York.

PERSONALITY IN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

Where men devoid of a pleasing personality win acceptance, it is usually found that this is accomplished by the sheer power of intellect. Where those of mediocre ability succeed, it is with the aid of an appealing personality. When the successes and failures of life are analyzed, it develops that the element of personality has played an important part.

The board of examiners of the New York City school system, in recently outlining the points to be observed in the selection of principals, makes "personality" the first consideration. The several qualifications called for are summarized in the following paragraph: "Personality, ability to capitalize the best efforts of one's associates, a genuine interest in the welfare of boys and girls, professional and civic leadership, ability to inspire confidence in pupils, sound scholarship, a definite philosophy of education, professional experience, executive and administrative ability."

The school executive deals not only with the board of education and the teaching personnel, but also with the public and the press. He stands in an exposed position. His most difficult tasks are those in which the interests of groups and individuals conflict with the interests of the children and the progress of the schools. His leadership, if it is to continue for any considerable length of time, will be appraised not so much by the ultimate results he achieves, as by his human leadership, his facility as a harmonizer, his integrity, his affable and winning personality.

The professional qualifications called for in a school superintendent or principal are many sided, but primarily he must give assurance that he is master of his office, knows its scope and function, and exercises the art of diplomacy. Whether his personality is something inherent or acquired, it remains that the school executive who possesses it, will have smoother sailing than he who lacks it.

Problems of Teacher Retirement

T. T. Allen¹

When retirement systems for public-school employees were first enacted in this country two different plans were devised to provide funds for the payment of the retirement allowances. Under the first plan, the school employees paid the entire cost of the retirement allowances and the public paid nothing. The original New Jersey Teachers' Retirement System was an example of the first plan. Under the second plan, the public paid the entire cost of the retirement allowances and the school employees paid nothing. The present Rhode Island Teachers' Retirement System is an example of the second plan.

The first plan of financing a retirement system was based on the theory that the school employees were the only persons benefited; the second plan on the theory that the school system only was benefited. However, the truth is that, in order to justify the support of a teachers' retirement system by the taxpaying public, the school system as well as the school employees should be benefited. In the Pennsylvania School Employees' Retirement System, the school employees and the public share equally the cost of the retirement allowances. The method adopted by the Pennsylvania system for meeting the cost of the retirement allowances is based on the theory that the school employees and the schools share about equally the benefits of the retirement system.

Without an adequate retirement system, the school boards as a rule, hesitate to drop from active service a teacher who has rendered many years of efficient service, even though the teacher by reason of advanced age or physical infirmities is no longer able to render such service. Without a reasonable income, a teacher who has passed the age of efficient service, hesitates to make himself an object of public or private charity by resigning from active school service.

The very nature of the work of the teacher is such that freedom, as far as possible from financial worry, is essential to a high standard of efficiency in the schoolroom. If the teacher alone were affected by worry and anxiety it would be unfortunate, but a teacher who faces retirement from service with no income will find it increasingly more difficult to inspire his pupils with the ideals of character and service they should receive in our schools.

Furthermore, an adequate retirement system will help to keep in school service trained and experienced teachers. In time of prosperity such as we experienced for a number of years prior to 1929, and such as we will experience again in the near future, many of our best teachers will have opportunities to enter other occupations at higher salaries than they receive as teachers.

But with the assurance of a retirement allowance in case of disability or old age, a teacher with a number of years of experience will hesitate to leave school service, even though a higher salary can be secured in some other occupation. The money contributed by the public to pay the public's share of the cost of the retirement allowance does as much if

not more to increase the efficiency of our schools than any other similar amount of money.

The arguments which may be advanced for the establishment of sound teacher-retirement systems and the improvement of those already established have been summarized by the National Education Association in a bulletin entitled, *Teacher-Retirement Systems*. We quote from that bulletin: "A sound teacher-retirement system (1) protects school children from teachers made incompetent by disability or old age, (2) attracts capable, far-sighted young people into the teaching profession, (3) keeps good teachers in the service, (4) increases health and efficiency of teachers by removing worry and fear of a destitute old age, (5) improves morale in the teaching force by opening the paths of promotion and encouraging professional growth, (6) treats teachers fairly by giving them protection similar to that given other citizens who come under the Social Security Act."

It is to be noted that the first five of these arguments concern the improvement of schools. Will H. Hayes, in speaking before the National Council of Teacher-Retirement Systems in 1929 said: "Public economy is not the hoarding of public funds. It means the intelligent investment, as contrasted with waste, of money collected from the taxpayers. The question of a teachers' retirement system we do not approach primarily from the viewpoint of the needs of the immediate beneficiary. We think, first of all, of a return that will be ultimately secured by the taxpayer himself. We approach this question from the angle of a community's obligation to itself rather than the community's debt to the teacher. Whatever contributes adequately to the efficiency of our school system is a good investment."

It is interesting to recall that two of these arguments, mentioned previously, were advanced as long ago as 1896, when John E. Clark, ex-president of the Detroit board of education, urged that: "By adopting the plan of a retirement fund, we not only secure a better and more thoughtful class of beginners, but we retain those teachers when their experience has doubly qualified them for work. If they will learn the art of contentment, they will be willing to stay with us and to make teaching their lifework, as they should, and not make it a steppingstone to other professions." Mr. Clark's point of view is certainly no less true today than it was in 1896.

This brings us to a consideration of the fundamentals of any sound and adequate retirement system. At the meeting of the National Council of Teacher-Retirement Systems, held in Boston, in February, 1928, the Council adopted fifteen fundamental principles which should be observed in organizing a teachers' retirement system. These fundamental principles are as follows:

1. Membership should be compulsory for teachers entering the service after the enactment of the retirement law; optional for teachers already in service.

2. Retirement ages and rules should be defined and administered so as to retain teachers during efficient service and provide for their retirement when old age or disability makes satisfactory service no longer possible. The retirement allowance should be sufficient to enable the retiring



E. R. VAN KLEECK, Ph.D.
SUPERINTENDENT-ELECT
NORWICH, NEW YORK

Dr. Van Kleeck's election at Norwich makes him the youngest city superintendent of schools in New York State. He succeeds Superintendent Frank R. Wassung, who has accepted the appointment at Garden City, Long Island. Dr. Van Kleeck, who was for several years at Walden, holds the degree of Doctor of Philosophy from Yale University. During the past six summers he has been an instructor in educational administration at the New York State Teachers College, Albany.

teacher to live in reasonable comfort, thereby removing the temptation to remain in the classroom beyond the period of efficient service.

3. The sums deposited by the teachers and by the public during the period of service should be approximately equal.

4. The deposit by the teacher and the payment by the public should be stated by the organic act creating a retirement system, subject to adjustment in accordance with future actuarial investigation.

5. Deposits to the account of each teacher should be made by the teacher and by the state regularly and concurrently during the period of service.

6. The retirement board should open an account with each individual teacher. Sums deposited in that account by the teacher should be held in trust for that teacher.

7. An adequate and actuarially sound reserve fund should be created so that the teacher may be guaranteed that the necessary money to pay the benefits promised is actually on hand at the time of retirement.

8. Periodic investigations by actuaries should be made of every retirement system to insure its financial soundness.

9. A retirement allowance should be provided for disabled teachers after a reasonable period of service.

10. Teachers leaving the service before the regular retirement age should retain rights to all moneys accumulated in their accounts. Teachers' deposits should be returnable upon withdrawal from teaching service, or death prior to retirement.

11. The teacher should have the opportunity to elect the manner in which he will receive the benefits represented by the accumulated value of his deposits and the state's payments.

12. Upon the adoption of a retirement plan, teachers should be given credit for their service prior to the establishment of the system. Funds for this purpose should be provided by the public.

13. The public should guarantee active teachers all the benefits which they had a reasonable right to expect under the old system. It should guarantee teachers retired under a previous sys-

¹This paper formed the basis of an address at the convention of the National Education Association in Detroit, Mich., June 30, 1937.

tem the allowance promised at the time of their retirement.

14. Provision should be made for co-operative or reciprocal relations between the retirement systems of the different states.

15. The administration of the retirement systems should be in the hands of a retirement board, whose makeup is carefully prescribed in the retirement law, and which represents both the public and the teachers.

There are two distinct plans of operating a retirement system in respect to the time when the money required to meet its obligations shall be provided. The one plan is the cash disbursement plan, and the other is the actuarial reserve plan. Under the cash-disbursement plan, no reserve fund is established, and the retirement allowances are paid from the contributions of the employees. When additional money is needed, the state and the public pay each year enough to meet the retirement allowances for that year.

Under the actuarial reserve plan, a reserve fund is established, and in addition to the contributions of the employees, the public pays each year into a reserve fund an amount which will be sufficient, with interest compounded annually, to pay their share of the cost of the retirement allowances based on service rendered that year.

The cash-disbursement plan is inequitable because it requires future taxpayers to pay the cost of retirement allowances based on service rendered at the present time. The cost of the retirement allowances for each year of service should be charged against and paid by the employee and the public in the year in which the service is rendered.

The actuarial reserve plan is equitable as under this plan the employee and the public pay each year into their respective reserve funds an amount which, with interest compounded annually, will be sufficient to pay their respective shares of the cost of the future retirement allowances based on service rendered that year. A retirement system operated under the actuarial reserve plan costs all parties concerned much less than if operated under the cash-disbursement plan.

The compound-interest earnings of the reserve funds soon become a substantial source of income and help materially to reduce the amounts which the employees and the public would otherwise have to pay. For example, the interest income of the Pennsylvania School-Employees' Retirement System up to June 1, 1937, was \$46,500,000. Under the cash-disbursement plan of operating a retirement system, this large income would not have been received, and ultimately the public would have this \$46,500,000 to pay in addition to its other payments to the retirement fund.

One of the fundamental principles that must characterize a sound retirement system is that it be actuarially sound. Unfortunately, sound actuarial principles adopted in the establishment of retirement systems do not render it immune from dangers later on. Those who have had experience with a system operated under the actuarial reserve plan understand the necessity for the accumulation of the required reserve funds in order to maintain the actuarial soundness of the system. As those necessary reserve funds accumulate, the retirement system faces danger from two entirely different sources. First, many teachers who fail to understand the reason for the large reserve funds will urge amendments to the retirement law providing for the payment of more liberal allowances without the necessary increase in contributions. Second, the

legislature and the public for the same reason will desire to reduce or eliminate entirely the state or employer's payment to the retirement system.

Another danger to large reserve funds has to do with their wise investment. The board that is charged with the investment of funds will be desirous of securing the best possible income, and the temptation to secure a higher interest yield at the expense of safety is constantly present. In some states, losses have occurred from unwise investments, and the greatest care should be exercised by those who invest the retirement funds. This, it seems to me, is the most fundamental factor in the operation of a retirement system for, if funds are unwisely invested, the financial integrity of a system will collapse. In most states, the investment of the retirement-system funds is limited to securities legal for trust funds or the funds of savings banks. This limitation usually makes the investments safe.

There is one other dangerous tendency which deserves serious consideration. Practically all retirement systems provide for a disability retirement allowance under reasonable conditions and without regard to age. No fair-minded person will question the justice of a retirement allowance to an employee who is physically or mentally incapacitated for service, no matter how young. Most systems provide for a minimum superannuation retirement age. A few systems permit superannuation retirement after a specified number of years of service regardless of age. In some systems, the employee while able to render efficient service may be granted a retirement allowance at 45 or 50 years of age. It may be argued that few employees exercise this option of early retirement, but it requires only a few employees retired with an allowance while in the prime of life to discredit the whole retire-

ment system in the minds of the public. An important argument that appeals to the average taxpayer, when he contributes to the support of a retirement system, is that the system helps to retain in active service efficient and experienced employees. Anything that weakens this argument with the taxpayer will destroy his favorable interest in the retirement system.

In conclusion, fear has been expressed that some states may reduce their efforts toward the establishment of teacher-retirement systems. However, it would seem that the opposite should be true. Because of existing legal barriers, it may be years before the advantages of the federal law will be available to teachers. However, the social security law does mean that teachers no longer have to fight alone in bringing about a better understanding of retirement systems.

Officials of the Social Security Board have expressed the opinion that among the most immediate results of the development of interest in social security will be a rapid growth in the number of teacher-retirement systems. Able and competent teachers to a greater extent than heretofore will seek employment in places where they will have the opportunity for making provision for old age. To secure and retain the services of such teachers, states and cities that have until now been lax in this regard will have to keep up with their neighbors. There will be increased interest in and increased activity toward the establishment of new retirement systems, and the improvement of those retirement systems which are now in operation. Much needs to be done along this line because even existing teacher-retirement systems do not guarantee old-age security to all of the teaching profession. Only about 65 per cent of all the teachers of the nation are included in such systems.

Size and Tenure of School Boards

The modern board of education, as exemplified throughout the urban centers of the United States, has during the past three decades undergone some definite changes. In the main these changes have been from a larger to a smaller membership, from a short to a longer tenure, from district or ward representation to representation at large.

During the period named there has also come into recognition a clearer definition as to the scope and function of the board member and a better understanding as to the delegation of authority and the relations which the administrative factors bear toward the professional. The position of the superintendent of schools has been accentuated in that he has become the works manager of the school system under policies formulated by the board of education.

Since the schools of the nation are in control of boards of education, locally created, their size, tenure, and manner of selection become matters of interest and importance.

A study recently made, by the Research Division of the National Education Association, enters into the subject with considerable thoroughness. The information gathered is based on 249 replies to a questionnaire sent to 325 superintendents of schools in cities above 30,000 in population. Cities above 100,000 in population are referred to as Group I, and those of 30,000 to 100,000 in population as Group II.

In discussing the average number of members of school boards, the study finds that in 75 cities, the average number is 7.7 in Group I, and 6.7 in Group II. In Group I the number ranges from 3 to 21. The largest number, namely, 22 cities have a board membership of 7. In Group II the 5-member school board is found in 52 cities, 7 in 41 cities, and 9 in 35 cities.

Tenure of Office

In the matter of tenure of service, it is found that long terms are favored for school-board members with overlapping terms so that the personnel does not change all at one time. The popular length of term is about 4 years. Nearly a third, however, of each group provide terms of 5 years or more. In the larger cities of Texas the terms have recently been lengthened from 2 to 6 years.

Representation for the city at large rather than by wards is generally favored, although the latter method of representation still prevails in about 12 per cent of the cities both in Group I and Group II.

Appointment or Election of School-Board Members

In discussing the method of selection the report holds that there is less agreement here than in other issues on school-board structure. The investigators here say: "Either appoint-

(Concluded on page 85)

Individual Instruction Succeeds in Small School

D. H. Martin and J. Howard Cheuvront¹

In the fall of 1935, a modified form of individualized instruction was adopted for the Salisbury elementary school.² During the school year 1936-37 the same plan was continued. Following are explanations, observations, criticisms, and results of this form of instruction as used in grades two to eight, inclusive, comprising approximately 150 students, during the school years 1935-36 and 1936-37.

The reorganized procedure of education has involved three changes from the conventional system in use formerly: (a) Individualized instruction and supervised study have replaced the formal class recitation; (b) homework has been eliminated; (c) the formal report card has been discontinued.

The new plan is built around the principle of providing for individual differences in interests and abilities in children, and seeks to provide training for social-civic relations. The subject matter has been reorganized into units, each unit specifying minimum content, supplementary work, and individual group activities.

Academic Work and Home Study

Each unit of subject matter is presented to the class as a group. This may take several class periods. After the presentation of the unit, individual work begins as each student works through the subject matter, drill exercises, and remedial work at his own speed. This is done under the close supervision of the teacher. After completing the essentials of the unit, the student may follow an expressed interest and work on additional subject matter as a project or activity. In many cases, entire units have been presented, with admirable results, as group projects.

This plan of instruction works best with classes of twenty or less members. With classes of more than twenty, it has been found advisable to form small groups, for instruction. In this case the faster and more capable groups may work with less attention from the instructor, while the slower groups receive the attention required. While the plan demands more work on the part of the teacher, it affords the setup for a superior type of instruction that gives the child mastery of the tool subjects and of other personality and social tools that may prove of infinitely more value.

Home study has not been entirely eliminated; it is still allowed in cases of prolonged absence, or for drillwork and other remedial exercises. All homework is checked closely, and no student is allowed to take a textbook home for study, without the permission of the teacher. This plan has tended to develop good study habits. It has been noted that the child who receives too much help with homework is slow in developing capacities for independent work.

Extracurricular Activities

During the last two years the extracur-

ricular-activity program has been broadened to reach the entire student body. It is a part of the daily schedule, and is a true intracurricular-activity program. It includes such activities as the school paper, baseball, basketball, organized physical education, manual-arts club, pins-and-needles club, book-lover's club, dramatics, junior red cross, assembly, and music including band, orchestra, and chorus. Since the school system is not large enough to afford regular classes in manual arts or home economics, the manual-arts and pins-and-needles clubs are recreational clubs, for those expressing interest and showing ability along those lines. Participation in these activities is by the choice of the student, aided by suggestions from the teachers. The program has aided materially in securing motivation, promoting interest, and in adjusting work to individual differences. The daily schedule allows two free periods for the program. The first period in the morning is utilized for group music such as band, orchestra, and chorus. Students not participating in music are sent to the study hall where, under the supervision of a teacher, unit subject matter is studied. The last period daily is used for dramatic work, assembly, class meetings, news-staff meetings, junior red cross, project and activity work, clubs, and individualized remedial work. The arrangement prevents confusion and the disrupting of regular classwork. Other music and physical education classes are held at regular periods.

Project and Activity Work

Project and activity work has made it possible to teach facts through the experience gained in natural life situations. Thus, the business arithmetic in the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades has been taught through the project method. A bank was organized, checks were written, endorsed, cashed, deposited, and canceled; deposit slips were issued and balances computed. Similarly, other facts were taught through the organization of an insurance company, a department store, a grocery store. Correlations with other subjects were carried out. Activity work was used to advantage in all grades, and aided materially in promoting interest in the subject at hand, in the acceleration of learning, and in the retention of facts. A valuable project was the all-school project of a marionette show.

Guidance Program

This plan of instruction lends itself naturally to guidance. The more successful teacher, in this system, is child-minded and not subject-matter minded. Many opportunities for guidance have arisen from the diagnosis of academic difficulties, the correction of which leads to personality development.

Each teacher makes a "case" study of the children under her supervision who have learning or behavior problems. These case studies are discussed in the "clinic," composed of all the teachers. Here a course of action is agreed upon and the case is followed through. Many remedial measures are employed. Special tasks such as caring for the science equipment, working in the office, caring for the stage, caring for the athletic equipment, answering the telephone, deliver-

ing the school paper, acting as usher for assembly programs, etc., serve to develop responsibility and give the child avenues of self-expression. For all children proper use of leisure time is encouraged in the clubwork. Good books are recommended, hobbies are encouraged, plays presented, sports pursued, and school social events are planned. Study habits are observed, reading difficulties are diagnosed, and individual remedial work is assigned.

Testing and Programs

Without a broad testing program, the plan would fail. The Otis intelligence test is given each child upon entrance to school. Teacher-made tests are given for each unit of work, and the results are diagnosed for individualized remedial work. Each student's score, on the unit tests, is ranked with those of the rest of the class, as is his intelligence quotient. A comparison of these two ranks indicate whether or not he is working up to his indicated capacity. It is not contended that the tests are entirely reliable, but they allow comparison which is helpful. At the beginning and at the end of the school year, the *New Stanford achievement tests* are given as a third comparison between the student's record and a national norm.

The informal pupil report has proved superior to the formal report card. The child's progress is represented as satisfactory or unsatisfactory, as the case may be. Space is provided in which the teacher explains the causes for poor work, or commends and encourages the child for good work. These reports are sent out as often as the parent or teacher deems necessary. From six to twelve reports are sent out during the school year. Reports are also made by personal interview, telephone, and personal letter. If the child's rank in intelligence and on the unit tests compares favorably, his work is considered satisfactory since he is working up to his indicated capacity.

Some Criticisms

In this plan of instruction there is danger of the intracurricular program crowding the daily schedule to the danger point. It has been necessary to allot more time to reading, dictation, and writing in order to avoid the lowering of academic standards. Dictation especially has given considerable trouble, due primarily, to the use of an inadequate word list.

The plan may be criticized, perhaps, because only one intelligence test is given to each student, and a broader basis for evaluation of progress would be furnished by comparing the results of three different intelligence tests with the teacher's rating. The use of additional achievement tests in the middle of the year and of more inclusive diagnostic tests would make progress more readily recognized. The plan has been criticized by some of the teachers because it is difficult to carry on with classes of more than twenty, and because the activity work requires considerable advance planning, careful organization, and continual care in execution.

There is a tendency for the extracurricular work to be dominated by a few children who are natural leaders, so that the teachers and the supervisory staff must constantly induce the less active children to partake. It has been recognized finally that the extracurricular program crowds the daily schedule to the danger point. All of these dangers have been recognized and corrective action has been taken.

¹Mr. Martin is superintendent of schools and Mr. Cheuvront is principal of the elementary school, Salisbury, Mo.

²A brief outline of this plan, with results of the first year of operation, was described in the *SCHOOL BOARD JOURNAL* in August, 1936, p. 18.

Fourteen Years' School Record in One Folder

F. G. Macomber*

The Need for Cumulative Records

While permanent cumulative records serve a number of purposes in the modern school, their most important use is in connection with the guidance service, where they are indispensable. Without them even the best counselors, whether homeroom teachers or trained guidance experts, are greatly handicapped in their efforts to aid the individual pupils in the planning of their educational health, recreational, social, and vocational programs. No guidance service can function efficiently, intelligently, and in the best interests of the pupil without a fund of information about that pupil's interests, abilities, experiences, physical and mental health, and home environment. Cumulative records are a means of furnishing much of this needed information. As they are records covering the whole school life of the pupil, they enable the counselor to know the child in a way that is otherwise impossible. Without them much valuable time is wasted gathering needed information at each level of the school system; many adjustment problems develop which could have been prevented; and the pupils are without intelligent guidance during much of the time while they are trying to become adjusted to a new school situation, and while new teachers and counselors are trying to become well enough

Fig. 1. This folder is made of heavy manila tag and measures 9 by 12 inches. The ends are closed so that it is in effect an envelope open at the top.

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acquainted with each pupil to be able to aid him in the solution of his many problems of school and community life.

Information Furnished by Cumulative Records

A cumulative record system should furnish a complete picture of the whole child, and should be stated in terms readily understandable to teachers and counselors alike. It should contain the following information:

1. Full name, exact age, race, correct address, phone number.
2. Family history giving name, race, occupation of parents; number of children in family, with some information of the education and vocation of older brothers and sisters; economic status of the family; whether parents are deceased; information regarding broken homes; and any special information essential to the better understanding of the child.
3. An educational record of the results of all intelligence, achievement, and aptitude tests administered the child during his school career, together with estimates of the pupil's ability in the various areas of learning made by each of his many teachers. If subject marks are given, it should contain a record of these, and of units earned at the secondary level.
4. A record of the pupil's special interests and abilities.
5. A record of significant experiences in and out of school.
6. A statement of his educational and vocational plans at different levels of the school system.
7. Personality traits as the school has been able to observe them.
8. A record of physical and mental health.
9. Case histories of special problem cases in health, social adjustment, etc.

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Fig. 2. Front of educational record card. Printed on white stock, it measures 8 1/2 by 11 inches.

Fig. 2. Front of educational record card. Printed on white stock, it measures 8 1/2 by 11 inches.

Fig. 3. Reverse of educational record.

Fig. 3. Reverse of educational record.

Fig. 4. Front of health record. Printed on buff stock. See reverse in Fig. 5.

Fig. 4. Front of health record. Printed on buff stock. See reverse in Fig. 5.

| | | | |
|---|-------------------------------|---|--|
| Date of Examination | | | |
| Age in Years and Months | | | |
| Structural | Height in Inches | | |
| | Weight Actual in lbs. | | |
| | Enter N or R | | |
| | Growth N-Normal R-Retarded | | |
| | Posture | | |
| | Deformities | | |
| | Eyes R-Right L-Left | RL RL RL RL RL RL RL RL RL RL RL RL RL RL RL RL | |
| | Ears R-Right L-Left | RL RL RL RL RL RL RL RL RL RL RL RL RL RL RL RL | |
| | Teeth T-Temporary P-Permanent | TP TP TP TP TP TP TP TP TP TP TP TP TP TP TP TP | |
| | Organic | Skin | |
| None | | | |
| Throat | | | |
| Lungs | | | |
| Heart | | | |
| Nerves | | | |
| Lymph Nodes | | | |
| Endocrine | | | |
| Digestive Organs | | | |
| Kidneys | | | |
| Examined by N-Nurse T-Teacher P-Physician | | | |
| Date | | Record of Doctor's Diagnosis and Follow-up Work | |

Fig. 5. Reverse of health record card.

| SOCIAL AND PERSONAL RECORD | | | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------------|--|---------------------|--|----------------------|--|---------------------|--|---------------------|--|-------------------|--|
| Name Last | | First | | Middle | | Date of Birth | | Sex | | Race | |
| Address | | Religion | | Health | | Place of Birth | | Date of Birth | | Date of Death | |
| Father | | Mother | | Last Grade Completed | | Separated | | Long Absent in Home | | Address | |
| Date | | Father's Occupation | | Date | | Mother's Occupation | | Remarks | | | |
| Name | | Date of Birth | | Schooning | | Occupation | | Remarks | | | |
| Date | | Home Conditions | | Economic | | Date | | Educational Plans | | Special Interests | |
| Date | | Kind of Work | | Time | | Results | | Effect | | Date | |
| Date | | Kind of Work | | Time | | Results | | Effect | | Date | |

Fig. 6. Front of social and personal record card.

| Personal and Social Traits | | | |
|----------------------------|------------|-------------|--|
| Industry | Elementary | Junior High | Senior High |
| Reliability | | | |
| Leadership | | | |
| Cooperation | | | |
| Emotional Stability | | | |
| Honesty | | | |
| Date | Activity | Achievement | Miscellaneous Information (Note Special Abilities, etc.) |

Fig. 7. Reverse of social and personal record. Considerable space is provided for recording children's activities and achievements, and miscellaneous information concerning their especial school records.

Advantage of Folder-Type Cumulative Record System

The committee which was appointed by the superintendent of the Riverside, Calif., schools in the fall of 1934, to develop a cumulative record system for the city schools, made a careful study of the records of most of the more progressive cities of the United States. These were obtained through the courtesy of the National Education Association, the U. S. Office of Education, and the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. The committee tried to incorporate into the record system the best ideas of those who have pioneered this movement, and to develop a plan for maintaining those records essential to the progressive guidance service.

The folder-type system with individual cards was finally adopted for the following reasons:

1. It is flexible. New cards may later be added if the need arises. For

instance, it is easily possible that a special guidance card may later be needed in addition to the educational, health, and social cards already devised.

2. Any special information of permanent or temporary value may be added to the folder of any student by merely inserting it in the open-topped envelope. Such information may be removed when it is no longer important. Of necessity, entries on the cards must be extremely brief. Additional comments in special cases may be placed in the folder.

3. Any one of the cards may be changed, eliminated, or revised at any time, without changing the forms of the others, or necessitating the clipping together of cards.

Directions for Maintaining Cards

The cards are 8½ by 11 in. in size, and the envelopes are 9 by 12 in. outside measurements. They are to be kept in regular 12½-in. filing cases. It would have been better to have made the envelopes 11½ in. wide, as not all filing cases are a full 12½ in. inside measurement.

While much of the information may be entered on the card by an office secretary, who will transfer the information from a new pupil's enrollment card to the proper permanent cards, most of the entries must be made by the classroom teacher in the elementary schools and by the homeroom teacher in the secondary schools. After all, they are the only ones who are in a position to gather and record much of the needed information about each pupil, and are also the ones who should be in continual need of such information if they are much concerned with the welfare of the individual pupils under their guidance. The back of the health card would, of course, be filled in by the persons responsible for giving of physical examinations, and much of the educational record could be filled in by the central office. Some entries, such as a pupil's vocational interest, or his educational plans, would be made only at those points where a special effort was made to determine them. Possibly the first entry under educational plans would be made during the sixth year, when the pupil is laying plans for entering the junior high school. Vocational plans might not appear before the junior-high-school days of many pupils, while some elementary children would have their minds fairly well made up in the elementary school. These, of course, are subjected to numerous changes, but these changes of plans, in themselves, are important to the guidance service at later dates.

The making of entries on the different cards should be a continuous rather than a periodic practice. If a child is out with the measles, or has just been vaccinated for smallpox, the entry should be made immediately by his teacher. If a home is broken by death or divorce, it should be recorded at the time.

The parents of each pupil entering the city system for the first time must fill out an enrollment card giving much of the information to be transferred to the health- and social-record cards. Any past records of grades and test scores which are available will be added.

A set of detailed directions acts as a guide to teachers, principals, and counselors in maintaining the records.

The cards are of value only as they are kept continually up to date, and are easily available at all times to those of the school system responsible for the welfare of the child. The cards are confidential in nature, and must be so treated. They are for the use of the school staff only, and must not be allowed in the possession of parents, or anyone else, outside of the professional personnel of the school.

ENTER THE KINGDOM OF CHILDHOOD

The world is inaccessible except through education. Effective education must be a progressive remaking of experiences. Living today with a fullness of meaning provides well for tomorrow. As teachers we must enter into the kingdom of childhood. Do you know what it is to be a child?—J. Paul Leonard, *College of William and Mary, Virginia*.

THE EDUCATOR'S LOYALTIES

An educator's loyalty, like that of a citizen, should be double. First should come his loyalty to the interests and welfare of education as of national concern; as the conservator of the social heritage and the preserver of American democracy.

The second loyalty of an educator should be to his immediate local group; to the problems and interests held in common with others similarly situated. This local or class loyalty is necessarily of secondary importance since its objectives cannot be fully attained until the nation-wide loyalty receives proper recognition.—Orville C. Pratt.

THE AMERICAN School Board Journal

Edited by Wm. Geo. Bruce and Wm. C. Bruce

Interference with School-Administrative Authority

NO PERIOD in the administration of the country's schools has encountered more interference in the nature of public protests, pupil strikes, and the like, than has been witnessed in recent years. The public has manifested an irritable mood, resented with greater frequency the course pursued by the school authorities, and has by petitions and protest meetings, sought to nullify official action.

Thus, it is no longer new to find a protest registered against the closing of an obsolete building, the transfer of pupils from one school to another, the dropping of a superintendent, principal, teacher, or janitor, etc. A reversal is a common demand.

The situation represents a passing phenomenon in American civic life due to a disturbed public mind. The spirit of protest, or let us call it the urge for individual self-assertion, has entered more into our economic and civic activities, and has developed a consequent defiance of authority. To find that this same spirit is asserting itself in the field of school administration is, therefore, not surprising.

Speaking strictly from the standpoint of public education, it may not be amiss to point out that these manifestations of personal and group pressure are violations of the democratic spirit. They spell a defiance of established representative authority which is essential to American institutions; they undermine that discipline so vital to the rearing of a proper citizenship.

The wave of protest is illogical when viewed from the standpoint of the democratic method employed in the establishing of school-board authority. The citizens vote the members of the board of education into office and vest them with the authority and responsibility of administering the affairs of the school system. Whatever action the board may take is sharply circumscribed by state law enacted by a legislature also chosen directly by the people. In the vast majority of communities, the membership of the board is carefully chosen for its superior ability, experience, public spirit, and willingness to administer the schools for the public welfare and for the best interests of the children. The members are in continuous touch with the teachers and with a professional schoolman — the superintendent — who is especially charged to advise the board and keep it informed on all matters of importance. The board can act officially only in meeting assembled after consideration of all aspects of a problem and with full understanding that it has the responsibility for the consequences.

While no one would claim that the average board of education is infallible, it is reasonable to say that in the vast majority of cities, the board is competent, honest, informed, and well-meaning in its actions. A deliberate departure from previous policies, or a decision on a matter of employment, a purchase, a financial change, is usually the result of careful

judgment. The benefit of every doubt must go to the board.

On the other hand, the private citizen can hardly have as unerring judgment from the outside as can the official on the inside. Even though he be informed in general, he cannot judge a matter in the light of its past history, its legal implications, its economy, its future effect. The citizen's interest is spasmodic and purely personal, his responsibility is limited to himself. In cases bearing upon a teacher or a pupil, the whole school rarely is within his view. The neighborhood, the one school, the one business or labor group, the one immediate end in view, are the limits of his noisy desire.

There can be but one conclusion here, namely, that if the citizenship exercises its prerogative in the choice of a body of men to perform a public service, and the law clothes that body with the power to perform that service, there should be no interference or meddling on the part of the private citizen.

The Unofficial in School Administration

AN INQUIRY into the disturbances and embarrassments, which so frequently beset school officials in the routine of duties, leads to the conclusion that many of these may be traced to acts that are beyond official authority. A board-of-education member sometimes forgets that he possesses no legal power except those which he exerts in conjunction with his associates.

There can be no doubt that a member of a board of education must absorb considerable information gained outside of the board rooms in order to enable him to act intelligently on matters of official determination. At the same time he must be clear as to his individual status on the one hand, and his collective authority on the other. He cannot act for the whole board of which he is only a member.

County Superintendent Charles D. Beem, of Charleston, Illinois, has been prompted recently to caution school-board members against signing documents without proper authority. Several embarrassing cases had come to his attention.

"The law provides," said Superintendent Beem, "that school boards may transact business only at a regular meeting where records are kept, and that on all matters involving the expenditure of money, a vote must be taken by yeas and nays. I have competent legal advice to the effect that where loss is incurred by a school district through the practice of transacting business outside of a meeting, the directors may be held personally liable. School boards are advised to protect themselves by refusing to do business with any person or company who asks them to deal in an irregular manner."

The influential member of a board of education who takes an active part in the affairs of a school system is constantly contacted by persons who want him to do something for them. There is the teacher who is seeking an appointment, the agent who has something to sell, the parent who has a grievance, and even the superintendent who desires a rush decision or a quiet acquiescence in an embarrassing matter. If the member is courteous and accommodating, he may yield to verbal promises which are officially irregular and may lead to difficulties later on.

The school-board member cannot escape the duties and annoyances which befall his office outside of board meetings. He can, however, hold to a clear conception of the scope and function of his office, and discriminate between contacts which

are merely informational and preliminary, and acts which are official and legally binding. He will know what outside conferences may be helpful to him in order to provide him with a comprehensive view of conditions and enable him to perform his official task intelligently, expeditiously, and honorably.

Electing County Superintendents on Partisan Lines

A DAILY newspaper in Indiana, in discussing the prospective election of school superintendents in that state, reveals the fact that partisan politics plays an important part in the choices made. It starts out by saying that Republicans will gain about twenty county superintendents, and then adds:

"This shift goes back to the elections of 1934 when the Republicans gained many township trustees. Republican superintendents are expected to be chosen in St. Joseph, Henry, Knox, Wabash, Rush, Decatur, Dearborn, Jennings, Ripley, Jefferson, Daviess, Orange, Martin, Starke, Pike, Morgan, and Howard counties to replace Democrats. Republicans retain control of Lake, Wayne, and Delaware counties, but in Carroll and Cass counties, Republican superintendents probably will be succeeded by Democrats."

When the charge is made that school interests are frequently subject to political considerations, it may be well to inquire into the initial or formative stages in the structure which governs the schools. Public sentiment holds that these shall be administered free from all partisan influences and yet there are laws which compel a recognition of the partisan idea.

The Indiana editor who discusses the subject says:

"Why county school superintendents should be chosen for their partisan beliefs is not clear, nor is there any approval of this practice among people who have the best interests of the schools at heart. However, the explanation is not hard to find. Township trustees are political officials and make their races for election on party tickets. For years they have divided along partisan lines when the time comes to elect county school superintendents, and there is no reason to suspect that they will change now. Thus good school administrators may be discharged for no reason other than that they do not belong to the party in power. Both parties are guilty of laying the blight of partisanism on public education and the welfare of children."

The charge that the administration of the schools, more especially in the larger communities, is dominated by politicians and partisan interests is heard altogether too frequently. But if the urban centers can be charged with permitting political influences to enter into their deliberations, it is also true that the rural districts are affected.

The evil lies primarily in the preliminaries employed in the selection of school officials. Where a board-of-education member is nominated and elected under a party label, it follows that a partisan school-administrative structure is created. If a county superintendent of schools owes his election to a given political party, its leaders may exact recognition in the form of appointments, contracts, and the like.

Here it becomes certain that the lawmakers must recognize the fact that the administration of the schools should be free from selfish political influences, and that it must primarily be divorced from party manipulations in the choice of elective officials. The approaches to the creation of school-administrative authority must be nonpartisan, rather than partisan or bipartisan. The candidate for a school office, be it for school-

board membership or a school superintendency, urban or rural, must be exempted from political party obligations, if he is to perform his duties in impartial and efficient manner.

The Temperamental School-Board Member

SOME years ago, two congressmen disturbed the peaceful and orderly deliberations of the national law-making body by a heated argument, passing the lie, and entering upon fisticuffs. A newspaper cartoonist pictured the combatants on a page humorously designated as the Sporting Edition of the Congressional Record.

But the members of the National Congress are not the only deliberative public officials privileged to become excited and resort to unbecoming conduct. Occasionally a member of a board of education gets angry at his colleagues and resorts to forms of expression that violate the decorum and complacency of a public meeting.

Two members of the Cambridge, Massachusetts, school board recently exchanged courtesies by calling each other liars. The result was that flying ash trays, books, and bulky documents served as weapons of attack. When the combatants realized the consternation they had created and the sensational publicity that would follow, they cooled down and exchanged apologies. The newspapers indulged in facetious descriptions of the combat, the public was shocked, most people laughed, and the incident has gone into history.

Comment here would seem superfluous. Those who in public places violate the proprieties of gentlemanly conduct not only bring odium and ridicule upon the office they hold, but also undermine the respect which the public should accord those in authority. A board of education is a public body which can least afford to subject itself to the charge of unbecoming conduct. It is the one body in the community that should lead in exemplary conduct, and in an expeditious and efficient disposal of public business.

The member who is impulsive and temperamental must hold to that calm and self-control which will enable him to enter into debate with his fellow members, with full use of his powers of intellect and wisdom.

School-Plant Maintenance and Vacation Months

THERE are periods in the year when the school-administrative authorities must give special attention to certain phases of work. Unquestionably, the summer months when the schools are not inhabited, are best suited for the rehabilitation of the school plant.

Deterioration is bound to set in. The wear and tear to which a schoolhouse is subject affects the floors, walls, stairways, and exits. The heating and ventilating system inevitably requires overhauling. The toilets and drinking fountains annually demand attention. The premises, on the whole, need periodical rehabilitation.

In brief, the plant must not only be put in order for the fall opening of the schools, but the elements of safety and sanitation must be uppermost in the minds of the authorities. The program of school maintenance is best handled during the vacation months.

The use value for education is the ultimate test of all school equipment and supplies.

PWA School Building in Minnesota

George F. Hoppe¹

The Public Works Administration, most often called PWA, was established as a functioning body of the National Industrial Recovery act. The act was intended to stimulate public works and public building construction, and has had widespread influence on the erection of new schoolhouses. Originally, the law provided a 30-per-cent outright grant to local communities, but the aid was raised to 45-per-cent gratuities to the public bodies meeting the imposed regulations. This government largess has had a salutary effect upon school construction. Under this plan of financing a new school building, the local board of education signed a contract with the federal government. If the federal regulations pertaining to plans, specifications, labor, material, and supervision were adhered to by the school board and the builders, 45 per cent of the total cost would be paid by PWA.

Since the inauguration of the PWA in 1933, many schoolmen and members of boards of education have voiced the opinion that no saving to the participating school district could be effected by PWA assistance in financing a local building program. Many a controversy in smaller communities was started on such ungrounded belief, and many school districts were deterred from much-needed construction by these unfounded opinions.

The writer became interested in the problem of PWA aid because one of the first PWA school buildings constructed in Minnesota, was under his guidance, and many inquiries were made regarding costs, savings, etc., by other superintendents contemplating like programs. Always the same question was asked, "What was the excessive cost of your building because of PWA regulations?"

The Minnesota Program

To answer this question with facts, the entire PWA school-building program in Minnesota, extending from July, 1933, to September 1, 1936, was surveyed. During this period, 75 school buildings and additions were built. Of these, 15 received a 30-per-cent grant, and 60 a 45-per-cent grant from the federal government. These schools may be classified as follows:

| Type of Building | Number of Projects |
|---|--------------------|
| New Buildings | |
| Combination elementary and high schools | 8 |
| Elementary schools | 6 |
| High schools | 5 |
| Additions | |
| High-school classrooms | 10 |
| Elementary classrooms | 3 |
| Gymnasiums, auditoriums, and classrooms | 38 |
| Gymnasium, auditoriums | 5 |

For comparative purposes, the cost figures of 12 school buildings built during the years 1930-1933 were computed. This group of 12 buildings included types that were in many ways comparable to the total of 75 PWA projects. The non-PWA group were all built by contract, without the NRA or PWA regulations. All costs of these schools were financed by the local school districts, by bond issues, or direct taxation.

In the first stage of its program, the PWA granted 30 per cent of all contract costs and a designated part of the engineering and architectural fees entailed in the supervision of the building. The regulations imposed were those demanded by the NRA in regard to wages and materials. Local labor received preference, and men were certified for work by the government employment agency, the NRS. The popularity of the program gained momentum slowly because of the adverse propaganda which was set in motion by those opposing the program and by others who were misinformed.

In compliance with numerous demands for a higher percentage of aid in public works, the government soon offered a maximum 45-per-cent grant in all PWA projects. The computation of this grant permitted school boards to include in the cost of a building, all labor and materials specified in the former plan and, in addition, all architectural fees, equipment, land, legal and administrative costs. This more generous policy resulted in an enormous increase in applications, and greatly affected the program in Minnesota.

The Costs Compared

To have some basis of comparison in measuring PWA cost and private construction cost, it was necessary to have a standard of comparison. After examining building measures used by architects and engineers, the writer felt that these were not applicable to the types of buildings studied, and were not satisfactory from an educational viewpoint. A new basic unit was then devised, which was called *educational content*. In using this measure only the cubic content of space used for educational purposes is computed. This includes regular classrooms, special classrooms, libraries, laboratories, auditoriums, gymnasiums, and stages. The content of the following was omitted: corridors, lavatories, cafeterias, locker rooms, janitors' closets, boiler rooms, community rooms, office space, and other space used for auxiliary agencies. The *educational content* in most cases was found to be about 50 per cent of the total content as figured by the architects.

After finding the suitable measure just described, it was necessary to obtain comparable cost figures. Total-cost figures could not be taken because of the variance in types of construction: Of the PWA projects, 19 were new buildings, and 56 additions. The additions varied greatly in the amount of electrical and mechanical equipment. Some additions were complete and modern in every detail, and some incorporated only classroom space with just the bare necessities. It was found that general-contract costs varied the least, so these were taken as the basis of comparison. In the general makeup of a building, we find that there are certain necessary divisions and specifications and that the cost of general construction is fairly well established by these standards. For purposes of comparison, costs were computed on the basis of educational content per cubic foot, using only the general-contract costs.

The total costs of the 75 PWA buildings were divided as follows: 73.9 per cent for general construction, 16 per cent for the

mechanical installation which includes plumbing, heating, and ventilation; 4.3 per cent for electrical work; 5.3 per cent for architectural and engineering fees; and 0.6 per cent for legal and administrative purposes. Previously, the last item had not appeared as part of building costs. It was included as an item charged to the cost of buildings and appeared in the computations of the federal grants. Of the 12 schools built in Minnesota under private construction, during the years 1931-1933 and used for comparative cost purposes in the study, the following distribution of costs was found: 69.8 per cent for general construction, 12.8 per cent for mechanical equipment, 4.5 per cent for electrical work, 3.8 per cent for engineering and architects' fees.

The median cost for PWA constructed schools was found to be 35.4 cents per cubic foot of educational content; for non-PWA buildings during the years 1930-1933, the median cost was 35 cents per cubic foot of educational content. The median of cost computed on the same comparative basis for the 15 schools which received a 30-per-cent grant, was 40 cents per cubic foot; and for the 60 schools which received a 45-per-cent grant, the median was found to be 33.5 cents per cubic foot. This indicates that PWA regulations had little effect on construction costs. The above medians are hard to explain because the building index was at 70 to 75 per cent of normal when the schools of 1930 to 1933 and the 30-per-cent-grant buildings were constructed. The index ranged from 80 to 85 per cent of normal when the 45-per-cent-grant schools were built. Nevertheless, the buildings constructed when the index was lower have a higher unit cost. Many of the 30-per-cent-grant schools were complete units and so a higher unit cost was the result. Additions were cheaper to build than completely new buildings.

Though the difference in unit cost of private and PWA school construction is negligible, the actual cost to the local district is much lower under PWA. Since the study demonstrated that a building can be built just as cheaply under PWA regulations as by non-PWA construction, then the saving to the school districts amounted to 43 per cent of the total cost of construction, which was the average of the grants allotted. This would mean that a \$100,000 school building could be financed with \$57,000 of local money. Because this was true, many Minnesota school districts of low valuation availed themselves of the opportunity and added new school facilities. The borrowing limit of these districts would have prevented the raising of sufficient local funds to build the necessary plants. The median valuation of the school districts in Minnesota building under PWA was \$376,000. The maximum bond issue allowed by law for the lower 50 per cent of the entire group would have been \$56,000. No complete school building could have been built for this or a lesser amount.

Without doubt, PWA has done much to alleviate the need for new school buildings in Minnesota, without burdening the local district too greatly. The PWA has functioned with a maximum of supervision which insures well-constructed buildings. No increased costs have been incurred because of the grant by the government, and all the evils often connected with construction have been eliminated because of federal inspection. It can be said that this program has been an opening wedge for federal aid to schools which will eventually bring equal educational opportunity to all.

¹Superintendent of Schools, Pine Island, Minn.

Words

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The N.E.A. in Detroit Discusses Teachers' Problems

The summer conventions of the National Education Association have become so distinctly teachers' meetings, in which the interests of teachers dominate the purely educational considerations, that the few school executives who have the courage to attend are rather superfluous. The convention held in Detroit, June 27 to July 1, was the seventy-fifth annual meeting of the Association, and more clearly than any previous convention, brought to the fore the problems and interests of teachers' organizations as well as the present status of teacher welfare. The gathering was the largest in eight or nine years, and the members made full use of the opportunity to enjoy Detroit's magnificent advantages as a summer-travel center. The meeting saw taken the final steps for eliminating from the board of directors, the "old guard," of ex-presidents (mostly superintendents and executives) so that classroom teachers will be in control of the business of the Association.

President Orville C. Pratt, of Spokane, Wash., built the program around five major topics. These briefly are: (1) teachers' organizations and their problems; (2) the professional, social, and personal welfare of teachers; (3) federal aid for education; (4) growing forms of educational service and teaching aids; and (5) national and international social problems.

Teachers' Associations

In reviewing the seventy-five years of the Association's existence, Mr. Pratt pointed out that the problems of the N.E.A. have been primarily with those of education as a major public interest. The Association has to its credit many worth-while accomplishments in education, and its present strength is only a fair indication of what it can do when it enrolls in its membership the great majority of teachers of every type in the United States. When the Association began its work, the average salary of teachers was \$189 per year; by 1910, salaries had risen to \$485; the present average is \$1,250.

Secretary Willard E. Givens, in reviewing the year's work, indicated that the chief lines of propaganda have been toward the strengthening of local organizations, seeking federal aid for education, and promoting school interests through the radio. He pointed out that teachers are potentially the strongest professional group in America and need fear no undertaking for their own advancement.

Teacher Welfare

The Association is temporarily doing little for higher teachers' salaries except in its fight for federal aid, but is continuing its aggressive campaign for permanent tenure. During the past year the efforts have been in the direction of extending tenure legislation to all the states where such laws do not exist, and to the improvement of existing laws which permit school boards to evade the original purpose of tenure. In addition to a report presented by Chairman Donald DuShane, of the Committee on Tenure, addresses were heard on "Retirement Allowances," by T. T. Allen, of East Stroudsburg, Pa., and on "Adequate Compensation," by State Supt. E. B. Elliott, of Michigan. The underlying

problems involved in raising the social and economic standards of teachers was discussed by Dr. John G. Fowlkes, of the University of Wisconsin.

The discussion of federal aid for education centered around the Harrison-Black-Fletcher Bill, which the Association intends to support until some better measure is found. A new note in the situation was touched upon by Dr. Floyd W. Reeves, who described the purposes and functions of the President's Advisory Committee on Education, which has brought to its service, various nonteacher groups interested in education. Dr. Reeves's statement foreshadowed an elaborate study of the entire problem of federal participation in education.

The necessity for overcoming inequalities in school opportunities in the various states was strongly urged by Dr. Newton Edwards, of the University of Chicago, in his paper "A Challenge to Educational Statesmanship."

New Educational Developments

Dr. W. H. Kilpatrick, of Teachers College, predicted that adult-education facilities will be made available for those underprivileged in youth, for those in need of re-education in trade and vocation, and for those who desire new cultural growth. In controversial matters, he urged the work must not be propagandizing.

Streamlining Latin, using Latin for personality development, and old Latin in new bottles were novel approaches to the teaching of an old cultural subject. The need for "safety education" was urged by Supt. W. H. Johnson, of Chicago, and by Mr. Paul Hoffman, president of the Studebaker Corporation. The former approached the subject as an integral part of the elementary-school curriculum; the latter as a social necessity.

New uses of talking pictures and of the radio were presented from the standpoint of the producers. Such special educational problems as guidance, industrial arts, apprenticeship training, art, remedial reading were broadly discussed.

Social and Economic Problems

The summer meetings of the N.E.A. have followed the practice of taking up general economic and social problems with which the teacher should be familiarized. A conservatively progressive point of view was expressed by President Edmund E. Day, of Cornell University, talking on the question, "How Can Our Schools Contribute to a Better Social Order?" Secretary of Agriculture Henry A. Wallace took an hour and touched upon a wide range of educational problems to argue for the "ever-normal granary," and Senator Josh Lee, of Oklahoma, repeated his New Orleans triumph in pleading for the elimination of war. Perhaps the most important general paper was that of Stuart Chase, who discussed the broad problem of conserving American natural wealth by restoring the balance between the use of the natural restoration of our resources.

Business Affairs

In the race for the presidency of the Association, Miss Caroline S. Woodruff, president of the State Normal School at



Dr. Caroline Woodruff
President, National Education Association.

Castleton, Va., defeated Miss Amy Hinrichs, principal of the Audubon School in New Orleans. R. E. Offenheimer, of Lima, Ohio, was unopposed for treasurer. New directors elected are Mrs. Myrtle Hooper Dahl, of Minneapolis, R. T. Shaw, of Philadelphia, and Supt. David Van Buskirk, of Hastings, Mich. Among the eleven vice-presidents chosen are Dr. H. Claude Hardy, of White Plains, N. Y.; Miss Daisy Lord, of Waterbury, Conn., and Elliott Willis, of Winthrop, Mass.

Dr. L. A. Pechstein was elected president of the National Council on Education.

The resolutions following repeated the well-known position of the Association in favor of federal aid, teacher tenure, opposition to war, and teachers' oaths. The Association accepted a resolution for the appointment of an appraisal committee to pass judgment on the annual meetings. A special resolution offered by Clyde Miller, of New York, commending the WPA educational projects, was adopted.

The single heated fight of the week centered about the final acceptance of the new charter of the Association. In this new charter, the 21 past presidents of the Association are no longer life directors, and the influence of the "old guard" is thus removed in favor of the elected directors. The warning of Miss Florence Hale that the action would alienate the administrative group was disregarded in the vote of 586 to 460, which retired the ex-presidents. The Association increased the executive committee of the board of directors from 5 to 9 members.

The next meeting is to be held in New York City. The commercial exhibit included nearly 130 displays of teaching materials, books, and supplies.

NATIONAL COUNCIL ON SCHOOLHOUSE CONSTRUCTION WILL HOLD ITS ANNUAL MEETING IN COLUMBUS

President T. C. Holy and the committee on arrangements have prepared an interesting and helpful program for the fifteenth annual meeting of the National Council on Schoolhouse Construction, to be held in Columbus, Ohio, on October 20, 21, 22, and 23. The headquarters for the association will be the Neil House.

President T. C. Holy will be in charge at the opening session. Following the addresses of welcome, the members will listen to the progress reports of the various technical committees. On Thursday and Friday there will be a series of sectional meetings taking up problems of lighting, school planning, maintenance, and utilization.



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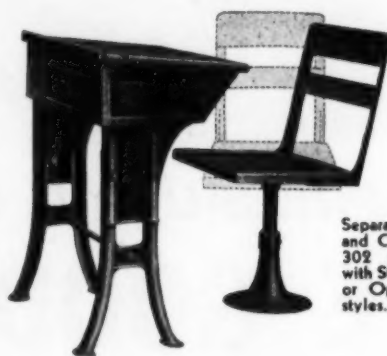
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School Law

Teachers

A junior-college teacher in California, not named in the list of probationary teachers, who was discharged by the city board of education at a meeting held before the expiration of the third consecutive year of his employment in a position requiring the certification of qualifications, nor notified within such time that his services would not be required for the ensuing year, and not included in exceptions mentioned in the board's minutes of the re-election of all certificated employees of the junior-college district, was held re-elected for such year, so that the board had the power to classify him as a permanent employee of the district, though it reduced his working time (Calif. school code, § 5.401; § 5.501 as added by the Calif. statutes of 1931, p. 1394).—*Crawford vs. Board of Education of City of Glendale*, 67 Pacific reporter (2d) 348, Calif. App.

A provision of the teachers' tenure statute that a teacher may terminate her tenure at any time, except during the school year, and for thirty days previous to its beginning, by giving five days' notice, was held to indicate that the statute was not intended to bind the state or teacher to a permanent relationship, but was intended only as a limitation upon the discretion of the local school officers (Burns' annotated states of 1933, § 28-4307).—*State ex rel. Anderson vs. Brand*, 7 Northeastern reporter (2d) 777, denying a rehearing, 5 Northeastern reporter (2d) 531, Ind.

Local school corporations being agents of the state must follow teachers' tenure statutes, and continue tenure teachers in employment so long as the statute is unrepealed, and it is immaterial whether the tenure rights are based upon a contractual obligation or upon mere privilege granted by the state, revocable at

will, since ministerial agents must obey a statutory mandate in either event (Burns' annotated statutes of 1933, § 28-4307).—*State ex rel. Anderson vs. Brand*, 7 Northeastern reporter (2d) 777, denying a rehearing, 5 Northeastern reporter (2d) 531, Ind.

Statutes, constitution, and the law must be deemed to be a part of every teacher's contract.—*State ex rel. Anderson vs. Brand*, 7 Northeastern reporter (2d) 777, denying a rehearing, 5 Northeastern reporter (2d) 531, Ind.

A statute providing for the permanent employment of probationary teachers by school districts was held not to authorize the governing boards thereof to discharge permanent teachers by reducing the time of their employment to such brief periods as would be equivalent to dismissal while permitting the employment of teachers without permanent status (Calif. school code, § 5.501, as added by the statutes of 1931, p. 1394).—*Crawford vs. Board of Education of City of Glendale*, 67 Pacific reporter (2d) 348, Calif. App.

That a teacher did not disclose to the school board her recent marriage, and signed a teaching contract by her maiden name, was held not "insubordination" justifying the cancellation of an indefinite teaching contract under the California statute (Burns annotated statutes of 1933, § 28-4308).—*McKay vs. State ex rel. Young*, 7 Northeastern reporter (2d) 954, Ind.

Discrimination in fixing a woman teacher's salary because of marriage would be capricious as to a teacher who is competent and efficient after marriage as she was before.—*Hutton vs. Gill*, 7 Northeastern reporter (2d) 1011, Ind. App.

Pupils and Conduct of Schools

A statute giving the school committee general charge of public schools gives power to exclude pupils of such intellectual capacity or weakness of mind as to interfere with the progress of others (G. L. Terr. Ed. c. 71, § 37).—*Nicholls vs. Mayor and School Committee of Lynn*, 7 Northeastern reporter (2d) 577, Mass.

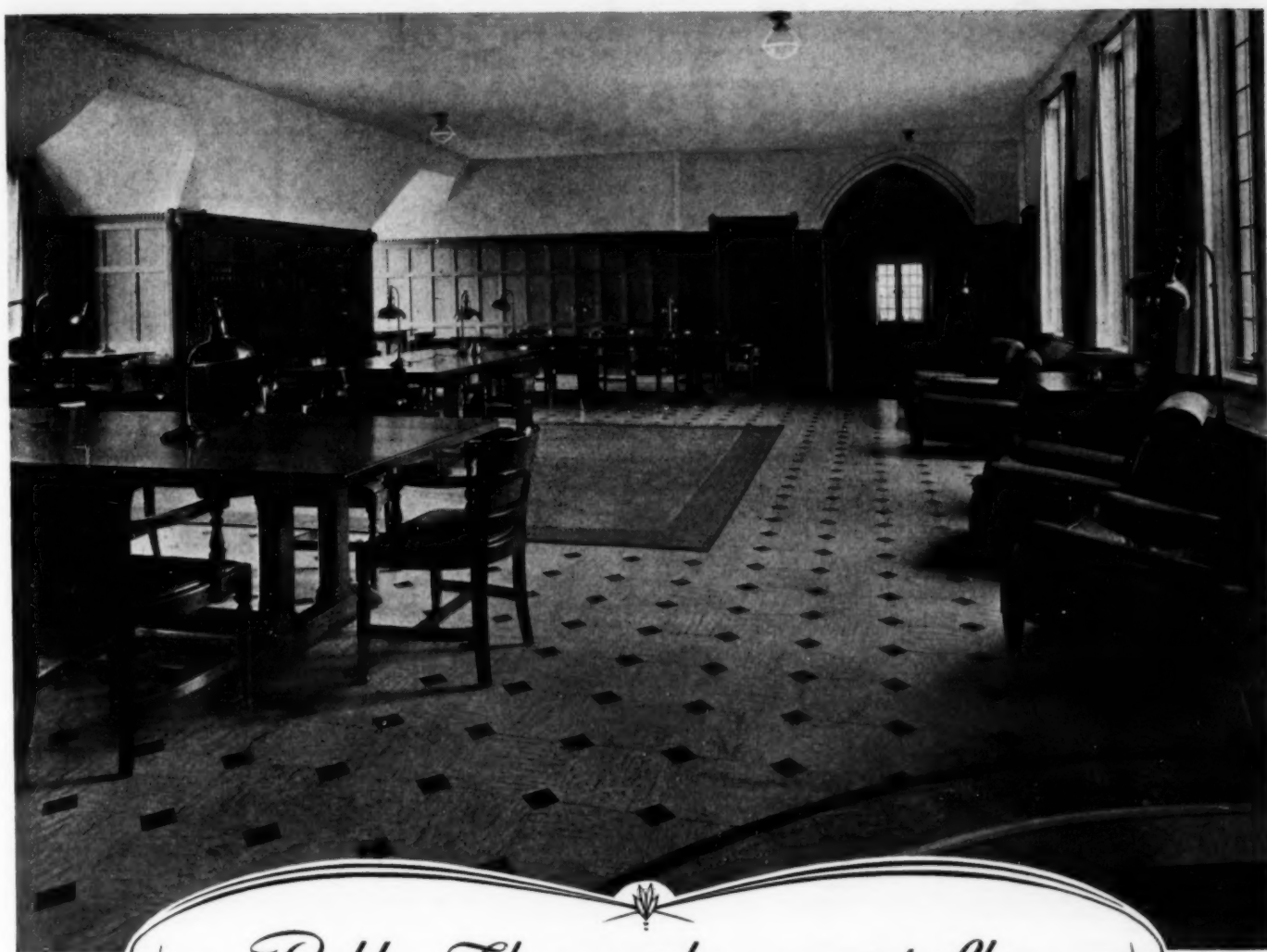
A borough school district, to whose senior high school a township school district sent its pupils, properly included the salaries of clerks employed to assist the supervising officials in computing the cost of tuition, under a statute allowing the salaries of members of the supervisory staff to be included as part of the cost, since the legislature, in using the term "supervisory staff," intended to include its essential elements (24 P. S. §§ 1480, 1489, 1595).—*School Dist. of Borough of Ferndale, Cambria County vs. School Dist. of Conemaugh Tp., Somerset County*, 191 Atlantic reporter 611, Pa.

A borough school district, to whose senior high school a township school district sent its pupils, properly included the cost of library reference and supplementary books in computing the cost of tuition, under a statute allowing the cost of textbooks to be included as part of the cost, since "textbooks" are not restricted to books studied by pupils in the schoolroom but include books which must be studied to complete textbook work (24 P. S. 823, 1480, 1489, 1595).—*School Dist. of Borough of Ferndale, Cambria County vs. School Dist. of Conemaugh Tp., Somerset County*, 191 Atlantic reporter 611, Pa.

A statute giving a school committee general charge of the public schools gives power to maintain the discipline of the classroom (G. L. Terr. Ed. c. 71, § 37).—*Nicholls vs. Mayor and School Committee of Lynn*, 7 Northeastern reporter (2d) 577, Mass.

A statute giving the school committee general charge of the public schools includes the power to suppress secret societies (G. L. Terr. Ed. c. 71, § 37).—*Nicholls vs. Mayor and School Committee of Lynn*, 7 Northeastern reporter (2d) 577, Mass.

The power of a school committee to enforce a rule, requiring the giving of a salute to the flag in every school at least once a week, and a pledge of allegiance to the flag is implied in a grant of power to establish the rule (G. L. Terr. Ed. c. 71, § 37; Mass. statutes of 1935, c. 258).—*Nicholls vs. Mayor and the School Committee of Lynn*, 7 Northeastern reporter (2d) 577, Mass.



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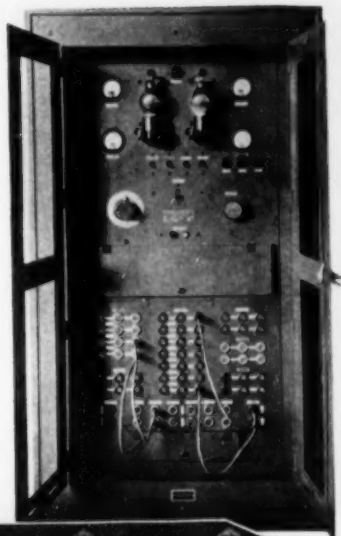
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Shall the School Boards Control Public Recreation?

Losses and gains which will accrue if recreation in cities is centralized in the school boards were the topic of a sectional meeting at the National Recreation Congress, held recently in Atlantic City.

Mr. V. K. Brown, of the Chicago, Illinois, Park Board, opposed the centralization of recreation in the school departments because he felt that there would be a lack of freedom, a lack of experimentation, and a general formalization of recreation. Education, he urged, is fairly well established, while recreation has just begun and is now in the kindergarten phase. The ultimate objectives of recreation are not known. For the time being at least, it would be unwise to tie up with education, which is rather fixed in its outlook and in its method. Educators tend to standardize institutions and processes, a tendency which is extremely unwise as applied to recreation.

In opposition to Mr. Brown, Mr. Alfred O. Anderson, director of physical education and recreation for the St. Louis board of education, strongly favored the centralization of recreation in boards of education. He presented seven reasons:

1. The schools have an educational philosophy and educational control of recreation would soon provide a distinct philosophy for its development.

2. The school systems have been successfully providing education for many years. If recreation is made a distinct part of educa-

tion children will become conscious of recreation and develop good recreation habits.

3. The schools have charge of the children during a considerable part of the day and during a considerable number of months. If the schools are in charge of recreation there will be continuity of service during the school day, after school, and during vacation periods.

4. There is less politics in the schools so that recreation has a better opportunity of developing according to its merits.

5. There is better continuity of administration in the schools than in city departments.

6. The ownership of schools and school grounds is in the name of the board of education and these should control the recreation activities carried on on school premises.

7. The school boards have the confidence of the community and have close relations with the parents through the parent-teacher associations and other allied groups and organizations.

A distinctly different point of view was expressed by Mr. C. E. Brewer, commissioner of education at Detroit, Mich. He held that the schools are not equipped to carry on a recreational program. The schools are too strongly interested in carrying on techniques and have not captured the full use of play aptitudes of children. The schools cannot and do not reach all the people as can a commission of recreation. Recreation should reach all the children

and all the adults in denominational and other groups. The state laws prohibit the use of public money for education purposes when these are used with parochial school groups, etc. An independent city commission is less hampered to secure budget allotments for general recreation purposes. Mr. Brewer urged that the community director of recreation is on the same plane of social recognition with the superintendent of schools and should not be under the direction of the latter. In the general discussion of the topic, it was pointed out that in small communities, the school board is the only agency which can best carry on a recreation program.

RADIO ACTIVITY INCREASES IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

The school use of the radio during the next school year 1937-38 is expected to reach an all-time record. The prediction made by John W. Studebaker, Commissioner of Education of the United States, is based upon numerous requests from schools and colleges for educational radio scripts.

A Script Exchange in the U. S. Office of Education was established last October through the joint efforts of the federal radio-education committee and the educational radio project of the Office of Education. The exchange was organized to supply good broadcasting material to schools, colleges, universities, CCC camps, and civic organizations interested in radio education.

The exchange has 1,600 scripts on file. It is believed that the script exchange has done an exceptionally good work in promoting education over local radio stations. It has rescued good radio scripts from the shelves of school and radio-station storerooms and has made them available to all the people.

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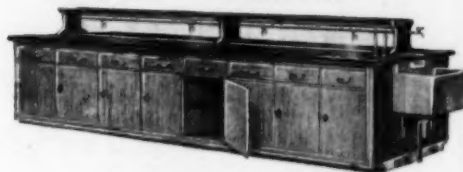
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School Board News

DAVENPORT SCHOOL BOARD PROPOSES RADICAL IMPROVEMENTS IN THE SCHOOL PROGRAM

The board of education of Davenport, Iowa, has approved a new program, providing for gradual but radical changes in the school system. The program, which was presented to the board by Supt. Irvin H. Schmitt, is not to be accomplished immediately, but will be carried out over a period of several years.

Among the proposals outlining modern methods and policies in the schools, are the following:

1. Consideration of the mental, physical, moral, economic, and social differences of students in determining what may be expected of them.
2. Establishment of a guidance program, with cumulative records, for each student.
3. A proper reporting system, providing for the elimination of grades and the substitution of a system indicating the capacity of the student.
4. Establishment of vocational courses in the high school.
5. Broadening of teachers to meet the demands of a modern educational philosophy, requiring the psychological treatment of each student.
6. A system for evaluation of teachers in terms of ability to adopt the philosophy.
7. Replacement of antiquated buildings in the city, the building of an auditorium, and a new fine-arts building.
8. Establishment of libraries in the elementary, intermediate, and senior high schools.
9. Salary increases for teachers based on merit, with no absolute maximum for superior teacher.
10. Annual instead of semiannual promotions.

QUINCY SCHOOL BOARD URGES HIGHER SCHOOL REVENUES

The board of education of Quincy, Ill., is of the opinion that the right of the board to increase the tax levy for educational purposes by raising the limit from one dollar to \$1.20 for each \$100 of property valuation is necessary in order to maintain the standard of the schools. The board in presenting the need for additional revenue for school efficiency, has pointed out that the enrollment has greatly increased, while the assessed valuation has decreased. This situation has created an acute condition in city-school finances.

Under the Illinois law, the board of education is required to maintain two separate tax levies and two separate funds, one for building and grounds, and the other for educational expenditures. While the building-fund income is adequate to take care of bond and interest charges and to take care of remodeling and improvements for years to come, the situation in the educational fund is not so satisfactory. The tax income in the educational fund, it is stated, is \$62,272 less in 1936 than it was in 1928, while in the same period the number of children has increased by 1,086 in the elementary schools and 716 in the senior high school. In other words, the tax income per child in Quincy has decreased from \$69.84 to \$50.53, or \$19.31 per pupil.

BOARDS OF EDUCATION

♦ The right of city, village, and rural school boards of Ohio to compensate their members for attendance at board meetings has been restored, as a result of the passage of a bill in the legislature. The three types of boards had enjoyed for many years the right to pay their members \$2 per meeting for ten meetings a year, until the

passage of the school-foundation law. Following the enactment of that law, the pay section was repealed.

♦ Muscatine, Iowa. The board of education has voted to purchase its fuel on a guaranteed heat basis. Under the new system of letting coal contracts, samples will be analyzed for their heat content. The coal will be sent to the laboratories of a commercial testing company in Chicago, where the number of btu's in the samples will be determined. The firm submitting the bid with the greatest number of net btu's for one cent will be considered the lowest bid in the awarding of contracts.

♦ Fall River, Mass. In recognition of long hours of labor, the school board has voted to shorten the working week of janitors during the summer. The hours of work will be from 8 to 1 o'clock on weekdays, and 8 to 11 o'clock on Saturdays.

♦ Port Huron, Mich. The school board has voted to give 10-per-cent increases in salary to janitors. Principals and supervisors were given increases of \$200 a year.

♦ The Bureau of Supplies of the New York City Board of Education has been removed from its old location to 1334 York Avenue.

♦ Cincinnati, Ohio. Mr. Chase M. Davies, president of the school board, has estimated that a levy of 1.8 mills will be necessary next year in order to meet an approximate shortage of \$1,513,000.

♦ The American Association of School Physicians, an independent organization allied with the American Public Health Association, will hold its annual convention in New York City, October 5 to 8.

♦ Hillsdale, N. J. The board of education has adopted a resolution, which provides for the elimination of midyear graduation classes, beginning with February, 1938. After 1938, all graduations will take place in June of each year.

♦ Burley, Idaho. The board of trustees of the independent school district No. 1 has purchased two all-steel school busses.

Bulletin No. 1

On the teaching of French

Modern Language investigations, as everyone knows, have unearthed some startling findings. Dubious of the merit of the methods employed in the average classroom for the average student, progressive instructors have, through their research, discovered that there is too much lost motion in teaching French. Why, they reasoned, should the student be burdened with a vast accumulation of detail much of which he promptly forgets and *does not need* for all practical purposes? Give him instead, they agreed, the *essentials* but give them to him in a simplified, improved, modern way so that, after two years of study, he *will actually be able to read the language and will be able to remember it*. How, you might ask, could these theoretical improvements be transferred to practical classroom needs? There was only one way to attain this objective, at least as far as three of these forward-looking educators saw it: new textbooks which would dare to defy existing modern language teaching traditions and which would make

usable the ideas being promoted by leaders in the field.

The first result of their effort makes its appearance in

MINIMUM FRENCH GRAMMAR

and the authors are Professors Willett, Scanlon, and Vander Beke. To them all teachers of French are indebted for making it possible, at last, to be sensible about beginners' classes in French by introducing a new note of efficiency into its teaching and by assuring results gratifying to any conscientious teacher.

We invite your inspection of MINIMUM FRENCH GRAMMAR. Copies are now available, as well as a detailed statement regarding its features. We will be happy to send you the book for ten days' study, or the literature without obligation.

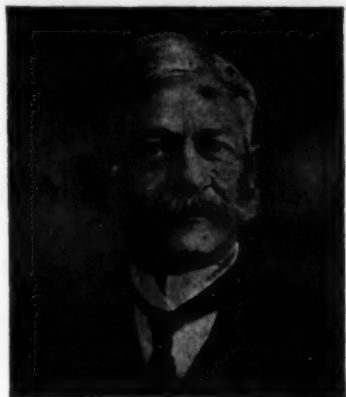
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New Books

Mathematics and Life

By G. M. Rush, F. B. Knight, and J. W. Studebaker. Cloth, 480 pages. Price, 88 cents. Scott, Foresman & Company, Chicago, Ill.

From time immemorial two ideas have been basic in the mathematics taught in the final year of the elementary school. First, there has been emphasis upon a series of topics considered necessary for adult and occupational life. These topics have included "mensuration"; such money problems as are dealt with under the head of discount, interest, banking, commission, taxes; the arithmetical aspects of geometry and trigonometry. Second, there has been a general review of the fundamental processes for the purpose of fixing in mind the more difficult number combinations, for developing speed and accuracy, and for familiarizing children with the "tricks" of problem solving. If many of the examples were wildly improbable, these early schoolmasters did relate them to the farm and land conditions of the times, and to the simple commercial transactions of village and town. In reality the earliest American arithmetics were developed from economic and social situations quite as much as out of the imaginations of impractical teachers. Undoubtedly, much of the material was remote from everyday experience and interest, and some of the examples were simply puzzling brain teasers, but as a whole the work was, and still is, a vital foundation for the life skills which every man and woman needs.

The oldtime teacher, once he had accustomed himself to the odd new typography of the present book, and to its informality and originality of approach, would find the work quite a challenge. True, he would not understand the references to radio or air conditioning and

family budgets, but he would find ample drill material and comprehensive reviews; he would find a rich collection of business, farming, and industrial problems, and all the essentials of geometric constructions and of measurements for area and volume. The interest-holding devices and illustrations he would perhaps frown upon as removing from arithmetic its drudgery, but it is inconceivable that he would not enjoy the mathematical thought-problems which are largely without numbers, the side trips into mathematics which involves a play element, the problems for careful readers which only the bright children will want to solve, the self-testing drills, and the problem scales.

The book has as its social and cultural theme "consumer mathematics" based largely on home situations. It is the old, old arithmetic made over by the science of education into the newest of the new mathematics for life.

Remedial Reading

By Marian Monroe, Bertie Backus, and others. Cloth, 183 pp. \$1.40. Houghton, Mifflin Co., Boston, Mass.

The Washington experiment in character education was inaugurated July 1, 1934, by the board of education of the District of Columbia at the request of Superintendent Ballou and was continued for two years. The study involved an investigation of problem children in the schools, and it was found that in a great number of cases, the children who presented a problem showed a marked disability in reading.

We have here a complete report of the plans and procedures for diagnosing and treating children who presented reading problems. The work was done by the regular teachers, in many cases with little help from professional psychologists.

PUBLICATIONS

Size, Tenure, and Selection of Boards of Education in Cities Above 30,000 Population
Paper, 38 pages. Circular No. 6, June, 1937, of the Research Division of the National Education Association. Washington, D. C.

This circular presents up-to-date facts concerning the size, tenure, and selection of school boards in 249 city school systems. For school boards chosen by popular election certain facts are given on the type, date, and frequency of elections and on the type of ballot and method of nomination.

According to the circular, there appears to have been little change in the size of school boards during the past decade. In one city there is a larger board than in 1927, and in two a smaller board; the others remain as before.

The median school board, both in Group I (over 100,000 population) and Group II (30,000 to 100,000 population) cities, have one woman member. More than a third of Group I cities have two or more women members; in Group II more than a third of the boards have no women members. It is noted that no increase in women members has occurred since 1926.

In the matter of tenure, it is noted that long terms of office are favored for school-board members, with overlapping terms so that the personnel of the board does not all change at one time. The median length of term for both groups of cities is four years; nearly a third of each group provides terms of five years or more.

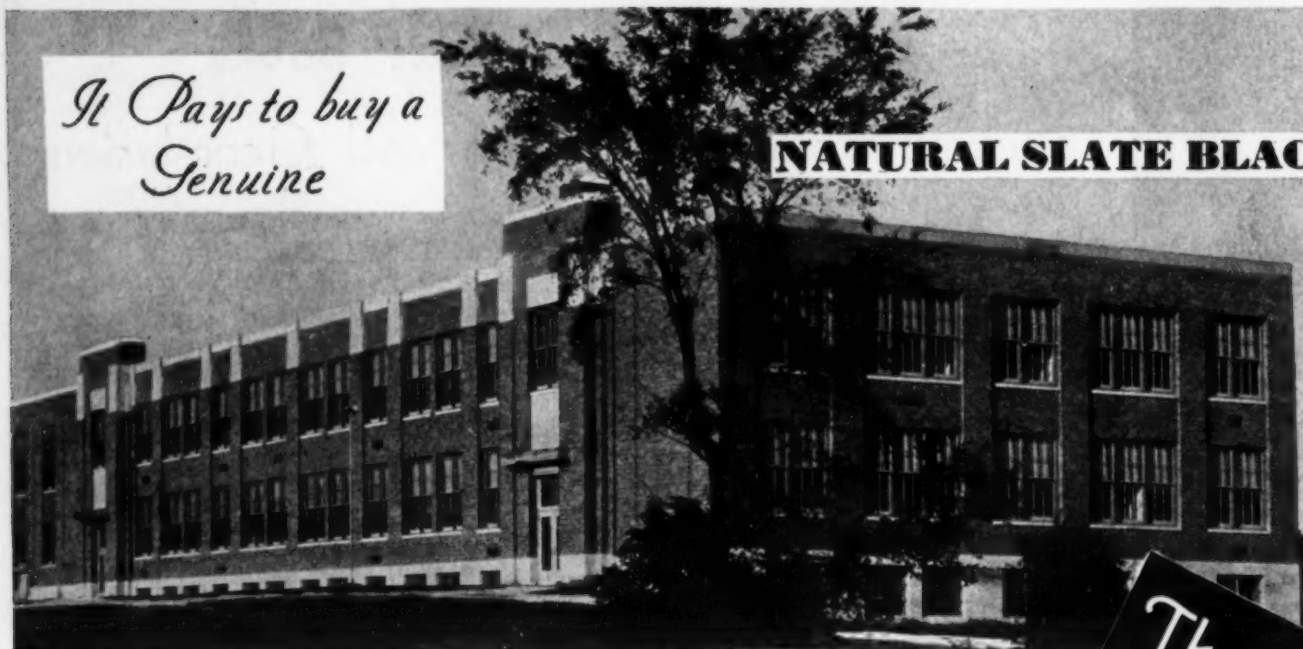
In the appointment of board members, there appears to be less general agreement about the method of selection than on most of the other issues. The problem is not so much one of machinery as it is of community tradition and spirit. The weight of preference leans toward the elected board, chosen on a nonpartisan basis at a special election. School-board members, it is found, are elected by popular vote in nearly three fourths of the cities in both Group I and Group II. In 183 cities the school-board members are chosen by popular election.

Representation for the city at large rather than for wards is generally recommended for school boards. This plan is used in fewer than 12 per cent of the cities in the two groups.

Methods of nomination according to the type of ballot used are included in the study. In 143 cities where a nonpartisan ballot is used in the election, nominations for the school board are made by petitions signed by a number of qualified voters of the school district. Three replies mention an unofficial citizens' committee which prepares a ballot for the board. Nominations by mass meetings and by civic clubs in three cities represent other efforts to secure well-qualified persons for membership. Nine cities in Group I and 23 in Group II elect board members on a nonpartisan ballot. In nearly all of these cities nominees for the board are chosen at party elections or in party caucuses.

Regarding the frequency of elections, it is stated that the maintenance of boards with overlapping terms results

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in a need for frequent additions to the board. One fifth of the Group I cities and one half of the Group II cities hold school elections every year; nearly all of the other cities hold biennial elections.

The number of persons chosen for membership varies in different sections. Two or three new members are chosen at each election in 47.2 per cent of Group I cities, and 68 per cent of those in Group II. In the small board, five or seven members is regarded as an effective unit of administration. It is found that the average number of members on the board is 7.7 per cent for 75 cities in Group I and 6.7 per cent for cities in Group II.

Plane Trigonometry

By K. B. Patterson and A. O. Hickson. Cloth, x-219 pages. F. S. Crofts Company, New York, N. Y.

An introductory course.

Salaries Paid School Administrative and Supervisory Officers in 1936-37 in 91 Cities over 100,000 Population

Paper, 6 pages. Tabulation 1-B, May, 1937, of the Research Division of the National Education Association, Washington, D. C.

The tabulation which is limited to administrative school officials, gives the salaries for associate, assistant, and deputy superintendents, attendance officers, janitors, nurses, directors of special departments, miscellaneous administrative officers, secretaries, superintendents of buildings, and superintendents of schools.

The Bonded Debt of 283 Cities as of January 1, 1936
By C. E. Rightor. Paper, 5 pages and tables of data. Reprinted from *National Municipal Review*.

A valuable annual report covering the gross bonded debt of 83 cities of the United States and Canada.

For the 268 reporting cities of the country, the total gross debt is \$8,049,118,467, and for the fifteen Canadian cities \$773,735,966. These cities represent a population of 43,616,674 for this country, and 1,894,376 for Canada. The total debt is divided approximately 48 per cent for general public improvements, 20 per cent for schools, and 32 per cent for public utilities. For the cities of Canada, the utilities show a slightly higher percentage, with the other classes reduced accordingly.

The total net debt, excluding self-supporting is \$5,610,237,276 for the 268 cities of the United States, and \$407,254,170 for the 15 cities of Canada. The weighted average per capita of the local cities is \$123.50, and of the Canadian cities, \$144.86.

The data show a wide range in per capita tax-supported debt—a fact that in itself raises fundamental questions

of the conditions under which borrowing is available by cities, but unanswered in the study. Exclusive of Washington, which has no bonded debt, the figures range from \$14.55 for Rockford to \$377.13 for Atlantic City.

Bond sales by states and municipalities during 1935 totaled \$1,182,000,000, or an increase of only \$8,000,000 over the preceding year. This total is exclusive of \$759,000,000 temporary loans made during the year. Of the total, \$342,500,000 of new issues was made by cities and villages, and \$50,600,000 by school districts, the remainder being state, county, and special district issues. Included in the grand total also are \$403,000,000 refunding bonds; of which \$170,000,000 was issued by cities and villages, \$16,000,000 by school districts, and the remaining \$217,000,000 by states, counties, and special districts.

Before We Read

By William S. Gray, Marion Monroe, and Allie M. Hines. Paper, 48 pages. Price, 32 cents. Scott, Foresman & Company, Chicago, Ill.

This book, which presents a new type of primary material, offers an outline of developmental activities for the prereading period. The book aims to encourage language development and the building of a rich store of meaningful concepts, the ability to think sequentially and follow ideas, the co-ordination of eye and hand, as well as the orientation of directional sense. Story-telling pictures, diagrams, drawing and coloring exercises, picture and word-matching pages are the materials presented. The book affords for the teacher an effective ally for reducing first-grade failures through a concrete program for building reading readiness.

Mandatory State-Adopted Contract Forms

Prepared by Donald Du Shane, chairman of the Executive Committee on Tenure. Paper, 32 pages. Price, 25 cents. Bulletin for June, 1937, Research Division of the National Education Association, Washington, D. C.

A large proportion of the court cases on teacher tenure have arisen over details of the teacher's contract. In many districts, local school authorities have been negligent or uninformed with regard to state laws, and have signed and permitted teachers to sign contracts which were invalid. This condition, it is believed, could be avoided by uniform state contracts carefully prepared by state departments of education in accordance with the law.

The present report is the result of a survey of teachers' contracts, made by the N. E. A. Committee on Tenure. It represents an analysis of the official contract forms for the employment of teachers in thirteen states. The report takes up such phases of the problem as mandatory use of state forms, content of state forms,

contractual items of mechanical nature included in forms, responsibilities of contracting parties, salary regulations, and duration and termination of employment.

The committee supports the idea of uniform state contracts because they make it possible for the conditions of employment to be effectively influenced by the organized profession. While small groups of teachers or individuals in a given community may not be able to improve the contracts which they sign, it is possible for a state teachers' association to approach the problem with concern for the best interests of both the public and the profession.

The report would be decidedly more helpful if it included a minimum form which school boards might adopt.

Teacher Retirement Systems and Social Security
Paper, 151 pages. Price, 50 cents. Bulletin No. 3, May, 1937, issued by the Research Division, National Education Association, at Washington, D. C.

The material presented in this report emphasizes the fact that teacher-retirement legislation is still in an early stage of development. Teacher-retirement systems have increased slowly, having in common with systems for other employees, their experimental stages. More than half of the states, and at least 56 communities, have already made some progress in providing security for aged and disabled public-school employees. At present, retirement systems must be planned and operated with full recognition of the high turnover among active teachers. It is found that a number of financial problems faced by individual teachers are met inadequately by many existing systems. It is especially necessary at this time that attention be directed to a broad view of means for assuring teachers' financial security.

Nutritive Aspects of Canned Foods

Cloth, 110 pp. American Can Co., Chicago, Ill.

This book reproduces in the briefest possible form the available results and facts revealed by recent studies of: (a) methods of preserving foods; (b) human dietary requirements; (c) the nutritional values of canned foods; (d) the public health aspects of food canning and canned foods; (e) canning procedures under commercial conditions. Eighteen tables, taken from scientific or official organizations include practically every aspect of food composition, classification, nutritional values, etc. A bibliography completes the work.

Fifth Handbook of National Honor Society

Bulletin 67, May, 1937, of Department of Secondary School Principals, N.E.A., Chicago, Ill.

A report of the activities for 1936-37.

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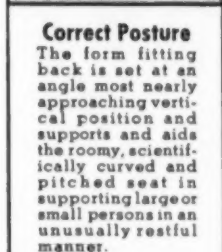


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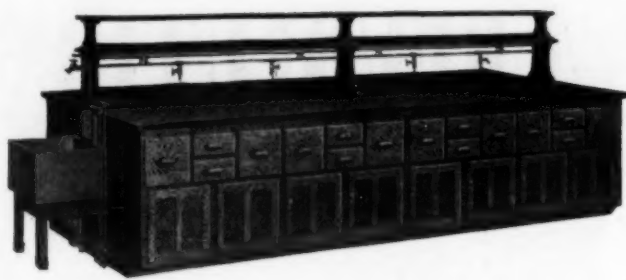
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News of Superintendents

- MR. WILLARD WEEKLY has been elected superintendent of the Butler-Worthington schools at Butler, Ohio.
- MR. E. L. MILLER, of Lake City, Iowa, has been elected superintendent of schools at Maquoketa. He succeeds W. C. Harding.
- MR. VERNE LANDESS, of Mt. Pleasant, Iowa, has been elected superintendent of schools at Hillsboro.
- MR. ANSEL LEWIS, of Fairfax, S. Dak., has been elected superintendent of schools at Lynch, Nebr.
- SUPT. JAMES E. PEASE, of North Muskegon, Mich., has been re-elected for his eighth term.
- MR. J. W. RIDDLE has been elected superintendent of the consolidated high school at Lawrenceburg, Ind.
- MR. C. J. SWARNES has been elected superintendent of schools at Milltown, Ind. He succeeds O. E. Cornwell, who has gone to Paoli.
- MR. JAMES H. C. THOMAS has been elected superintendent of schools at Williamson, Ga.
- MR. DON COWAN, of Havelock, Iowa, has been elected superintendent of schools at Kinross.
- SUPT. FRANK B. YOUNGER, of Menasha, Wis., has been re-elected for a three-year term.
- MR. ABE LAURITZEN, of Ledyard, Iowa, has been elected superintendent of schools at Parkersburg.
- MR. J. J. AUSTIN, of Emporia, Kans., has been elected superintendent of schools at Admire.
- MR. JOE LAMBERT, of Jessup, Iowa, has been elected superintendent of schools at McGregor.
- MR. C. O. RICHARDSON, of Swanton, Nebr., has been elected superintendent of schools at Vesta.
- SUPT. D. R. BAKER, of Hamilton, Ohio, has been re-elected for a ninth term.
- MR. MAX R. CLARK, of Randalia, Iowa, has been elected superintendent of schools at West Branch.
- MR. ROY W. WILEY has been elected superintendent of schools at Butler, Pa. He succeeds John A. Gibson.
- MR. B. A. LANCASTER, of Vidalia, Ga., has been elected superintendent of schools at La Grange.
- MR. B. OGDEN, of Alford, Iowa, has been elected superintendent of schools at Fairview.
- MR. PAUL M. CRAFTON, of Wellington, Ill., has been elected superintendent of schools at Washington. He succeeds R. R. Kimmell.
- MR. W. E. THOMPSON, of Shellsburg, Iowa, has been elected superintendent of schools at Montour. He succeeds R. K. Thompson.

● MR. A. W. VANDER WILT, of Oto, Iowa, has been elected superintendent of schools at Milford. He succeeds C. C. Buerkens.

● MR. F. R. COX, of Attica, Ind., has been elected superintendent of the Walkerton-Lincoln township school system at Walkerton.

● MR. H. W. NEWTON, of Rockford, Ohio, has been elected superintendent of schools at Montpelier.

● MR. H. J. KENNER, of Buck Creek, Ind., has been elected superintendent of schools at Camden. He succeeds Harry Hatton.

● MR. VIRGIL STINEBAUGH has been appointed acting superintendent of schools at Indianapolis, Ind.

● MR. C. V. BAKER, of Park Ridge, Ill., has been elected superintendent of schools in District 25, Arlington Heights. He succeeds the late E. D. Whitmore.

● SUPT. H. K. WHITTIER, of Streator, Ill., has been re-elected for another year.

● MR. FLOYD A. POTTER has been appointed to the newly created position of director of elementary schools in Atlantic City, N. J. He was formerly principal of the Massachusetts Avenue School.

● MR. CARL G. JOHNSON, of Clear Lake, Wis., has been elected superintendent of schools at Mellen. He succeeds G. E. Van Heuklom.

● MR. O. E. HUDDLE, of Sonora, Ky., has been elected superintendent of schools at Columbia. He succeeds W. M. Wilson.

● SUPT. W. A. WALLS, of Kent, Ohio, who this year completes twenty-five years of service in the schools, has been re-elected for another four-year term. Mr. Walls has served in the Kent schools since 1907, when he entered the system as a high-school principal. In 1910, he was made superintendent and served in that capacity until 1915. That year, he went to Martins Ferry and served there until 1919.

In 1919, he went overseas to do Y. M. C. A. work for six months and was then with the federal government for six months.

In 1920, he came back to Kent as superintendent and has remained at that post ever since.

● MR. RICHARD N. ANKETELL, formerly principal of the high school at Canton, Mass., has been elected supervising principal in charge of the high and elementary schools of the town.

● MR. J. CLARENCE HILL has been elected superintendent of schools at Athol, Mass. He succeeds G. S. Goodell.

● MR. JOHN W. ROBISON, of Monroe, Ohio, has been elected superintendent of schools at Eaton. He succeeds John A. Michael.

● MR. JOHN E. PAYNTER, of Butler, Ohio, has been

elected superintendent of schools at Mt. Blanchard. He succeeds C. D. McDaniels.

● MR. LOY NORRIS, of Houghton, Mich., has been elected superintendent of schools at Kalamazoo. He succeeds Herold C. Hunt, who has gone to New Rochelle, N. Y.

● MR. JOHN E. HOLCOMB, of Miami, Okla., has been elected superintendent of schools at Putnam City.

● MR. D. J. LIEFKIN, of Buckeye, Iowa, has been elected superintendent of schools at Duncombe.

● SUPT. E. B. WHALIN, of Raceland, Ky., has been re-elected for his fourth term.

● MR. A. E. CARLSON, of Kasota, Minn., has been elected superintendent of schools at Washburn, Wis. He succeeds O. J. Attoe.

● MR. CARL L. STRONG, of Reese, Mich., has been elected superintendent of schools at Mayville. He succeeds C. P. Kline.

● MR. L. D. MILLER, of Mitchell, Ind., has been elected superintendent of schools at Shoals.

● MR. M. D. ROBERTS, of Rockcreek Center, Ind., has been elected superintendent of schools at Van Buren.

● MR. L. C. CURRY, of Bowling Green, Ky., has been elected superintendent of schools for the next year.

● SUPT. V. L. NICKELL, of Champaign, Ill., has been re-elected for a new term of three years. Mr. Nickell will begin his eighth year as superintendent in September.

● MR. BURR F. JONES, of Fitchburg, Mass., has been elected superintendent of the union school system at East Longmeadow, Mass. He succeeds F. A. Wheeler.

● MR. L. O. HEWETT, of Monroe, Ind., has been elected superintendent of schools at Strasburg.

● SUPT. J. A. TRUE, of Council Bluffs, Iowa, has been re-elected for a three-year term.

● MR. DALLAS E. PORTER, principal of the high school at Woodville, Ohio, has been elected superintendent of schools. He succeeds Glen Zeller.

● MR. W. L. EARLY has been elected superintendent of schools at Sioux Falls, S. D. Mr. Early, who succeeds A. A. McDonald, had been acting superintendent for the past two and one-half years.

● MR. H. A. SIMMONS has been elected superintendent of schools at Rocky, Okla.

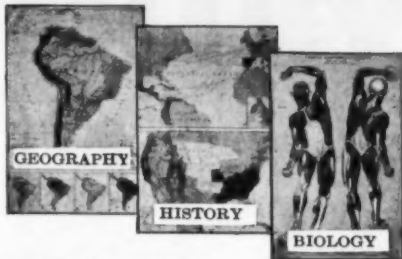
● MISS EDNA B. PITMAN, of Sanborn, Iowa, has been elected superintendent of schools at Farley.

● MR. L. E. WILSON, of Raymond, Kans., has been elected superintendent of schools at Osceola, Nebr.

● MR. R. E. MOSELY, of Warrenton, Ga., has been elected superintendent of schools at Tennille.

● MR. W. E. PAFORD, of Millen, Ga., has been appointed State School Supervisor.

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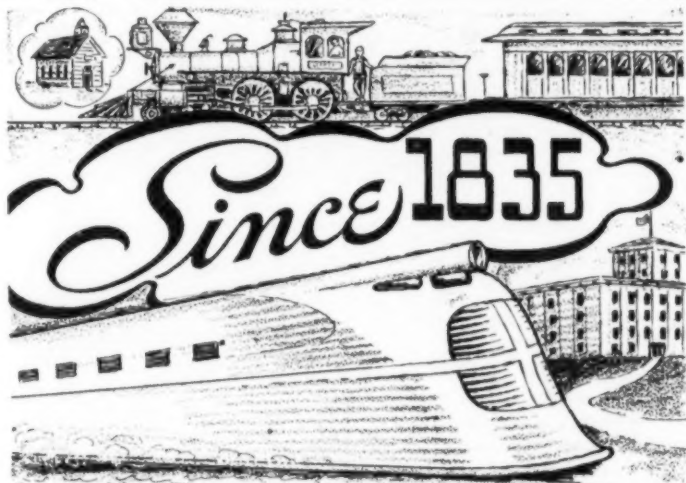
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PASSING OF DR. WILLIAM McANDREW

Dr. William McAndrew, 73, former superintendent of schools of Chicago, and a well-known schoolman in New York City, died at his home in Mamaroneck, New York, on June 28, after a brief illness.

Dr. McAndrew was born in Ypsilanti, Mich., Aug. 30, 1863, and was graduated from the Michigan State College with the degree of A.B. in 1886, and from the Michigan State Normal College.

After serving as an instructor in Michigan and in Chicago schools, he left the middle west for New York City, where he accepted the principalship of the Washing-

ton Irving High School. Later he was made associate superintendent of schools. In 1918, he was named assistant superintendent of schools in charge of the division of evening schools, recreation centers, and playgrounds. During his term as principal of the Irving High School he gave to the school a personality and was an expert leader of the teaching staff. He gave twenty-five years to the New York City schools and his ability came to be widely recognized.



Dr. William McAndrew

In January, 1924, he went to Chicago to fill the superintendency there. He accepted the position with the purpose of giving the school system a new deal and effecting improvements in the course of instruction. Later, with the election of William Hale Thompson, there began a fight which was continued until Dr. McAndrew was

dismissed on charges that he was a friend of the British King and that he used pro-British histories in the schools. Later the court ruled that the superintendent's dismissal was null and void.

By that time the term for which Dr. McAndrew was elected had expired, and he had gone on an extended trip. In accordance with the court's ruling, six months' back pay was voted by the school board, which was refused on the ground that he had done no work for the schools since his suspension in the summer before. Later a movement was begun among a hundred superintendents to pay attorneys for the McAndrew defense, but their pledges were returned with thanks and best wishes. Dr. McAndrew had been given six months, but he had served for 182 months.

During the past few years Dr. McAndrew had traveled extensively, had filled numerous speaking engagements, and attended educational meetings. He contributed articles to several educational periodicals. Dr. McAndrew was an active member of the National Education Association and was one of a large group called "the old guard."

PERSONAL NEWS OF SUPERINTENDENTS

● MR. T. N. LAMB has been elected superintendent of schools at Bendle, Mich.

● MR. HERMAN J. BROWE, formerly director of elementary schools at Detroit, Mich., has been elected assistant superintendent in charge of elementary education.

● MR. E. V. KENNEDY, of Darlington, Ind., has been elected superintendent of schools at Robinson, Ill. He succeeds A. F. Goldsmith.

● MR. REED GRONINGER, formerly superintendent of the Cass County schools in Indiana, has been elected superintendent of schools in Attica. He succeeds W. F. Millinix.

● MR. MARION CROUSE, of Port Austin, Mich., has been elected superintendent of schools at Crystal.

● The teaching staff of the schools at New Britain, Conn., on June 3, paid tribute to Dr. STANLEY H. HOLMES, retiring superintendent of schools. The occasion was a farewell to the retiring educator, which was sponsored by the local teachers' club. Dr. Holmes was presented with a gold watch.

● SUPT. HENRY J. GERLING, of St. Louis, Mo., has been re-elected for another four-year term as head of the school system.

● MR. C. R. PETERSON has been elected superintendent of schools at Mentor, Minn.

● DR. JOHN R. PATTERSON, of Roselle, N. J., has been elected supervising principal at Millburn. He succeeds C. B. Dyke.

● MR. J. H. COOK, formerly superintendent of schools

at Summerville, Ga., has taken a position with the state department of education as state school supervisor.

● DR. R. B. DANIEL, retiring superintendent of schools of Columbus, Ga., was presented with a gold watch and chain by the teachers and coworkers in the school system.

● MR. ALFRED L. DAVIS has been elected superintendent of schools at Blackshear, Ga.

● MR. J. R. TRIPPE has been elected superintendent of the Wadley High School at Wadley, Ga.

● SUPT. J. K. GEE, of Woodbine, Iowa, has been re-elected for another year.

● MR. VERN TROUP has been elected superintendent of schools in Cambridge, Iowa.

● MR. J. C. ROBINSON, of Moorland, Iowa, has been elected superintendent of schools at Adair.

● MR. R. C. WOODS has been elected superintendent of schools at Garner, Iowa.

● MR. C. A. TELLIER, of Highview, Iowa, has been elected superintendent of schools at Wellsburg.

● MR. A. C. BUTTERFIELD, of Alta, Iowa, has been elected superintendent of schools at Union.

● MR. R. C. BURNS has been elected superintendent of schools at Farmington, Mich. He succeeds J. A. Dalrymple.

● MR. S. A. GENES, of Chester, S. C., has been elected superintendent of schools at Fort Lawn. He succeeds J. V. Kneese.

● MR. G. W. JEANDREVIN, of Creston, Ohio, has been elected superintendent of schools at Strasburg. Mr. Jeandrevin succeeds Herbert P. Lohrman.

● MR. FRED FLENNIKEN, superintendent of schools at New Prague, Minn., died at his home on June 5, after a four months' illness.

● MR. JOHN N. GREER, a former assistant superintendent of schools of Minneapolis, Minn., died at his home in that city on June 8. Mr. Greer had been retired since 1934.

● MR. D. L. MUSSELMAN, of Risingsun, Ohio, has been elected superintendent of schools in Grand Rapids, Ohio.

● MR. V. A. REISIG, of Parma, Mich., has been elected superintendent of schools at Ovid.

● SUPT. J. E. PEASE, of North Muskegon, Mich., has been re-elected for a three-year term.

● MR. VERNE P. HORNE, of Paintsville, Ky., has been elected superintendent of schools at Van Lear.

● SUPT. H. H. RIGG, of Otsego, Mich., has been re-elected for another year.

● MR. FULLER L. AUSTIN, of Southbridge, Mass., has been elected superintendent of schools at New Canaan, Conn.

● MR. MERWIN W. CRAWFORD, of Groton, S. Dak., has been elected superintendent of schools at Madison.



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School Finance and Taxation

PER-CAPITA COSTS IN 300 CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS OF THE UNITED STATES

The United States Office of Education has issued its latest compilation on the cost of education in more than 300 city school systems. The Office points out that the program of studies and services offered varies greatly among school systems, even in the same population group. Educational expenditures, it is indicated, take on significant meaning when they are considered in relationship to educational services.

Th's report reveals that expenditures have risen from the very low point in 1933 to a new high point in 1936-37. In the latter year, the average per-capita cost in the 300 cities was \$102.73. Th's average cost figure is 9.1 per cent less than it was in 1932, but is 17.2 per cent higher than it was in 1933.

In cities of 100,000 population or more, the average per-capita cost in 1935-36 was \$107.19; in cities of 30,000 to 100,000, \$90.09; in cities of 10,000 to 30,000 population, \$70.84; and in cities of 2,500 to 10,000, \$72.23.

The per-capita cost of general control in cities of 100,000 population or more ranged from 94 cents to \$6.24; instruction, from \$38.23 to \$113.46; operation of plant, from \$3.17 to \$16; and maintenance of plant, from 81 cents to \$12.04.

FINANCE AND TAXATION

♦ Houston, Tex. The school board has adopted a budget of \$5,481,848 for the school year 1937-38. This is an increase of \$314,580 over the estimate for 1936-37. The budget includes provision for five per cent restorations of salaries

and for the payment of the annual increments to contract teachers.

♦ Governor Horner of the State of Illinois recently signed the Parker-Davis Bill, which allocates \$300,000 of state funds to 20 down-state high schools which are embarrassed financially and are in danger of remaining closed next fall.

The measure, limits the grants to school districts which have levied taxes up to the full \$1.50 limit for high-school purposes.

♦ Champaign, Ill. The school budget for the year 1937-38 will be \$387,614, which is a decrease of \$56,946 below the estimate for 1936-37. The 1937-38 income in the building fund is \$124,231, and in the educational fund, \$257,387. The school board anticipates an increase of \$7,926 from the tax levy, due to an increase in the property valuation of 1936.

♦ Lynn, Mass. Deputy Ernest Stephens has prepared a report on school finances which indicates that the schools will have a probable deficit of \$12,000 at the end of the school year 1937. There is a lack of funds necessary to meet the present demands for books, supplies, and maintenance.

♦ Cincinnati, Ohio. The board of education has prepared a tentative budget amounting to \$7,519,630 for the school year 1937-38. This budget is \$400,000 higher than the estimate for 1936-37, and \$1,583,927 more than was actually spent during the current year. Of the total, \$6,257,028 will be expended for personnel expenses.

♦ Indianapolis, Ind. The board of education has adopted a budget of \$6,975,733 for the school year 1937-38. The new budget which is \$354,909 less than the budget for 1936-37, will require a continuation of the present school levy of \$1.07. It provides an operating fund for the city schools, carries an emergency appropriation for school operation, and permits a partial restoration of teachers' salaries and a special-fund transfer of \$19,000.

♦ The Indiana State Government, at Indian-

apolis, has issued an order, centralizing within the state government the power of fixing salaries for teachers, and ultimately giving the state control of the schools.

The order, to be executed by four state departments, provides that in the future, all city school budgets must be prepared on a calendar-year basis, instead of the school-year basis, as formerly was the practice.

Under the order, emergency appropriations of the current school year 1937-38 and the budget proper of the calendar year 1938 will be advertised at one time, if the budget-making officials desire. In such cases, the emergency appropriation will be filed with the county auditor for immediate transmission to the state tax board. The annual budget will be submitted to the county tax-adjustment board, and on appeal, to the state tax board. Where the anticipated receipts and approved budgets and rates are insufficient to meet in full the salary schedules and other contracts, it is recommended by the state officials that provision be made for adjustment to the final tax rate in the contract.

♦ Burley, Idaho. The board of trustees of independent school district No. 1 has voted to pay off \$30,000 on its bonded indebtedness.

♦ East St. Louis, Ill. The school board of East St. Louis, District 189, closed its fiscal year on July 1, with \$11,158 cash on hand in the educational fund, and \$100,727 in the building fund. During the fiscal year, the report shows, the total receipts in the educational fund were \$1,873,606, including collection of delinquent taxes of 1935 and part of 1936. The board had \$25,122 cash on hand at the beginning of the year.

♦ Colorado Springs, Colo. The school board is completing an extensive summer repair and improvement program for the city schools. The program includes repairs to the buildings, replastering, rearrangement of blackboards, resurfacing of desks, installation of new equipment, new stage, renovation of heating plants, landscaping, and improvement of athletic grounds.

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NEWS OF SCHOOL OFFICIALS

- DR. HOWARD F. JAMES has been elected president of the rural central school board at Mohawk, N. Y. FRANK C. DAVIS was named as treasurer.
- MR. CHARLES S. KLINE has been elected president of the school board at Laureldale, Pa.
- MR. FLOYD DEACON has been elected president of the school board at New Madison, Ohio.
- MR. L. J. RILEY has been elected president of the school board at Eau Claire, Wis. KARL STUSSEY was named as vice-president.
- MISS ABBIE O. DELANO has been re-elected as secretary of the school board at Brockton, Mass.
- MR. HERMAN BARBER, director of maintenance for the school board of Ashland, Ky., has been re-elected for the next year.
- MR. A. L. BROWN has been re-elected as president of the school board at Hastings, Mich.
- Burlingame, Calif. At the recent annual school election, MRS. WINIFRED JEPPESEN was re-elected to membership for another term of three years.
- MR. ED. S. KRINER has been elected a member of the school board at Martinsville, Ind.
- MR. HARVEY RIDDELL has been elected president of the school board at Fort Collins, Colo. BYRON ALBERT was elected vice-president, and H. N. BALES was named treasurer.
- MR. M. H. TINKHAM, president of the school board of Wayne, Mich., has been re-elected for a three-year term. Other officers elected were HARVEY E. SMITH, secretary, and H. D. LUCAS, treasurer.
- The school board of Albion, Mich., has reorganized, with the re-election of ALVIN DICE as president; C. E. MARSH as vice-president; C. M. CREAGER as secretary; and MRS. KARL H. MILLER as treasurer.
- The school board of Howard county, Mo., has elected MR. S. E. GRANTHAM as president, and MR. A. L. RIDGELY as vice-president.
- The school board at Grand Junction, Colo., has reorganized with the election of MR. J. E. RAGAN as president; MRS. THOMAS ELA as vice-president; and COE VAN DEREN as secretary.
- MR. H. E. POPE and DR. HUGH C. GRAHAM have been re-elected as president and vice-president respectively of the school board at Tulsa, Okla. MR. W. A. MELTON was named clerk of the board.
- The school board at Elderon, Iowa, has reorganized with the election of MRS. JAMES NOVAK as president; MR. FRANK MUNDEL as secretary; and MR. HUBERT CHERVENY as treasurer.
- The board of education at Wyandotte, Mich., has re-

organized with the re-election of MR. CONRAD P. KREGER as president; MR. FRANK TUCKER as vice-president; and MR. JOSEPH A. KALASH as secretary.

• The board of education at Pontiac, Mich., has elected MR. MARTIN J. CLOONAN as president. Other officers elected are DR. FRANK MERCER, vice-president; LOUIS SCHIMMEL, secretary; and FRANK J. DUFRAIN, treasurer.

• The school board of Royal Oak, Mich., has elected the following officers: president, HAROLD J. VAN WESTRIENEN; vice-president, ALBERT C. DUNHAM; secretary, E. C. HOBART; treasurer, GEORGE E. RENTON.

• The school board of Battle Creek, Mich., has re-elected MR. C. EDWARD SPENCER as president. Other officers elected are GEORGE D. FALREY, secretary, and M. HARRY WESTERBROOK, treasurer.

• The board of education of Champaign, Ill., has re-elected DR. J. C. DALLENBACH as president. MRS. BESSIE H. RUSSELL has been re-elected as a member for a third term, and MR. IRVIN P. TURNER for a second term.

• DR. A. J. CARLTON has been elected president of the board of education at Escanaba, Mich. MR. C. E. LEWIS was named as secretary.

• The village of Shorewood, in Milwaukee, Wis., has elected MR. HERBERT MANGER, director; MRS. P. J. STEARNS, clerk; and MR. ALBERT E. OBERNDORFER, treasurer.

• In Whitefish Bay, Wis., MRS. HERBERT MOON was re-elected clerk of the board, and MR. NELSON C. HALL was re-elected as a member of the board.

• MR. MEDIO J. BACCO has been re-elected president of the board of education at Iron Mountain, Mich. WARNER J. BJORK was re-elected secretary.

• The board of school directors of Milwaukee, Wis., has reorganized with the election of DONALD L. BELL as president. The new members of the board are ARTHUR T. SPENCE, ALBERT E. BOYER, and PAUL C. BAUMANN.

• The Jefferson parish school board at Greta, La., has elected MRS. MARION B. ODUM as president.

• The school board of Eau Claire, Wis., has reorganized with the election of L. J. RILEY as president; KARL STUSSEY as vice-president; and MISS BERNICE SAUER as secretary.

• The school board of Beaumont, Tex., has elected OTIS E. FULLEN as president. MR. H. J. HALLIDAY was chosen vice-president.

• DR. BURT SHURELY has been elected president of the board of education of Detroit, Mich. He succeeds FRANK A. GORMAN.

• DR. C. C. COLLINS has been elected president of the school board at Jacksonville, Fla.

• MR. FRED P. AUSTIN has resigned as superintendent

of schools at Chandler, Arizona. He has been succeeded by Mr. W. G. Austin.

• MR. WILLIAM WARMINGTON, cashier of the Escanaba State Savings Bank, and MR. JOSEPH CHARLEBOIS, manager of the Hewitt Grocery Company, have been elected members of the board of education at Escanaba, Michigan. Mr. Louis N. Schemmel, secretary of the board, and Mr. Frank O. Beck, president, have retired.

• MRS. MARION WADE DOYLE, who was unanimously re-elected president of the District of Columbia Board of Education on July 1, has been reappointed for a three years' term ending in June, 1940. DR. ROBERT A. MAURER has been re-elected vice-president of the board, and MR. CHARLES G. DRAYTON and COLONEL WEST A. HAMILTON are new members of the board.

• E. L. SHUTT has been appointed superintendent of school buildings by the Springfield, Ill., school board.

• RAY POLTOM has been elected vice-president of the school board at Manhattan, Kans., to succeed the late Dr. H. T. Groody.

• MR. D. L. WOOD has succeeded Mr. J. Dale Welsh as superintendent of schools at Elkader, Iowa. Mr. Welsh has accepted the superintendency at Coe, Iowa.

• MR. FRANK H. HARTZELL has been elected principal of the High School at Collingdale, Pennsylvania, and MR. HARRY H. MERCER has been made his assistant.

• DR. H. C. STORRS, of the Wassaic State School, Thiells, N. Y., has been elected superintendent of schools at Letchworth.

• MR. C. H. GREENE, formerly principal of the high school at Southbridge, Mass., has been elected superintendent of schools, to succeed F. L. Austin.

• MR. H. B. WOOD, of Fredericktown, Ohio, has been elected superintendent of the Violet township schools in Pickerington.

• MR. MAX R. CLARK, of Randalia, Iowa, has been elected superintendent of schools in West Branch.

• SUPT. F. O. MEDSKER, of Alexandria, Ind., has been re-elected for a new five-year term.

• MR. JAMES HORTIN, of Vandalia, Ill., has been elected superintendent of schools at Jerseyville.

• SUPT. G. M. WILEY, of LaCrosse, Wis., has been re-elected for a three-year term.

• MR. B. A. SWEIGART, of Walkertown, Ind., has been elected superintendent of the Calumet township schools in Gary.

• MR. L. C. CURRY has entered upon his duties as superintendent of schools at Bowling Green, Ky.

• MR. HENRY V. NYE has been re-elected president of the school board at West Allis, Wis. MISS LEORA KLUMB was elected secretary.

Salary Schedules Which Incorporate Newer Ideas for Rewarding Merit

NEW FORDSON SALARY SCHEDULE

The Fordson board of education at Dearborn, Mich., has adopted a new salary schedule for the year 1937-38, which calls for a wide range of salaries based on training and length of experience.

Under the schedule, the minimum beginning salary for teachers has been set at \$1,200 during the probationary period, and \$1,400 for the year following probation. This salary is subject to annual increments of \$100, up to a maximum of \$2,200 for teachers with less than a bachelor's degree, \$2,500 for those with a bachelor's degree, and \$2,600 for those with a master's degree. The maximum salary for advisers or department heads will be \$200 more than the maximum for the master's degree.

The range of salaries of directors of departments and the principal of the senior high school will be from \$3,000 to \$4,300, and will be fixed at \$3,400 for each during the school year, with an annual increment of \$100 until the maximum is reached. All members of this group are required to possess a master's degree from a recognized college or university.

Salaries of Principals

The salaries of principals, except the senior-high-school, will be not less than \$2,500, nor more than \$4,000, and will be fixed at \$2,800 for each one in the class during the school year, with an annual increment of \$100, until the maximum is reached. All principals in this class are required to possess a master's degree after September, 1938.

The salary of principals, with less than twenty teachers, will be not less than \$2,100, nor more than \$3,500, and will be fixed at \$2,400 for the school year, with annual increments of \$100 until the maximum is reached. The educational requirements for these positions will be a master's degree after September, 1938.

Assistant principals of junior high schools and elementary schools will be computed the same as directors, except that the maximum will be increased by \$400.

The salaries of directors and of chairmen of commercial, English, mathematics, and social-science departments will be not less than \$2,200, nor more than \$3,700, with annual increments of \$100.

Salaries of Non-Teaching Employees

The salaries of librarians and assistants in the bureau of research and adjustment will be the same as day-school teachers where there are equal qualifications, with corresponding increments, but with the maximum \$300 less where there is no degree or teaching certificate.

The salaries of nurses and hygienists will be \$1,100 minimum, with annual increments of \$100 up to a maximum of \$1,800. All nurses must have the qualifications of registered nurses and public-health certificates by September, 1938.

The salaries of doctors and dentists will be fixed separately by the board of education in accordance with hours of labor, service, and responsibility.

The schedule for clerks provides for a minimum of \$80 and a maximum of \$110 for junior clerks; \$90 and \$120 for senior clerks; \$100 and \$130 for record clerks; and \$120 and \$150 for secretaries. Satisfactory service in each case will be followed by increments of \$5 per month, until the maximum in each division is reached.

Under the rules governing the schedule, the minimum requirements for the beginning teacher will be a bachelor of arts degree and a Michigan life certificate. A health certificate from a physician must be filed in the office by each member of the school staff.

A probationary period of one year will be

considered necessary for all first-year teachers, with a possible extension for a second year, without an assigned rating, if approved by the principal and superintendent.

Experience in other school systems will be evaluated under unusual conditions, making a possible maximum starting salary for a bachelor's degree of \$1,500. Ten years of experience in special subjects will be counted the equivalent of an A.B. degree in computing the salary for a special subject.

The maximum salary for advisers, or department directors will be \$200 more than the maximum for the master's degree.

TEACHERS' PREPARATION-MERIT SALARY SCHEDULE AT IRON RIVER, MICHIGAN

The board of education at Iron River, Michigan, has adopted a preparation-merit salary schedule for teachers in the schools. The schedule which goes into effect in September, 1937, is based on a nine and one-half months' school term and provides for increases in salary according to length of experience and years of college training.

Under the schedule, men teachers, with two years' college training beyond high school and six years' successful experience, will begin at \$1,200 and advance at the rate of \$50 per year up to a maximum of \$1,650 at the end of fifteen years; women teachers, with two years' college training and six years' experience, will begin at \$1,100 and advance at the rate of \$50 per year up to a maximum of \$1,550 at the end of fifteen years.

Male teachers, with three years' college training and three years' experience, will begin at \$1,250 and advance at the rate of \$50 per year up to a maximum of \$1,600 at the end of ten years; women teachers, with three years' college training and three years' experience, will begin at \$1,250 and advance at the rate of \$50 per year up to a maximum of \$1,600 at the end of ten years; women teachers, with three years' college training and three years' experience, will begin at \$1,150 and advance at the rate of \$50 up to a maximum of \$1,500 at the end of ten years.

Male teachers with four years' college training and no experience, will begin at \$1,300 and advance at the rate of \$50 up to a maximum of \$1,800 at the end of ten years; women teachers, with four years' college training and no experience, will begin at \$1,200 and advance at the rate of \$50 per year up to a maximum of \$1,700 at the end of ten years.

Male teachers, with five years' college training and no experience, will begin at \$1,500 and advance at the rate of \$50 up to a maximum of \$2,000 at the end of ten years; women teachers, with five years' college training and no experience, will begin at \$1,400 and advance at the rate of \$50 per year up to a maximum of \$1,900 at the end of ten years.

Credit for Training and Experience

Under the regulations governing the schedule, it is provided that the college-training requirement shall mean a fully accredited college after graduation from high school, and that the training will be counted in full years or the equivalent of thirty semester hours of credit.

Teachers with only two years of college training and less than ten years of experience, will not receive experience increments beyond the ten-year period. Those having ten or more years' experience will receive experience increments up to and including the fifteenth year by engaging in research or traveling, as arranged by the board of education.

All experience gained in other schools, up to



Mr. Selmer H. Berg
Superintendent-Elect,
Rockford, Illinois.

Mr. Berg, who has been elected superintendent of schools at Rockford, Ill., to succeed W. W. Ankenbrand, was formerly superintendent of schools at Rock Island. He entered upon his new work on August first.

Mr. Berg is a native of Iowa, and a graduate of Olaf College, Northfield, Minn. He also holds an M. A. degree, from the University of Minnesota, and completed his graduate work in education in four summer sessions at the University of Wisconsin.

Following his graduation, Mr. Berg assumed the superintendency at Lake Mills, Iowa, in 1919. In 1924 he was elected superintendent at Stoughton, Wis., and in 1932 he left to take over the superintendency at Rock Island, where he remained until his present appointment.

Mr. Berg is a member of the American Association of School Administrators, the Illinois Education Association, and is a former president of the Western Illinois Superintendents' Association.

and including ten years, will be accepted at one half. Teachers teaching in the Iron River township schools during the current school year, will be given credit for all teaching experience up to the limit of the schedule allowance. All experience will be counted in years of at least nine months, and from standard accredited schools.

The new schedule brings the teachers' salaries up to the predepression level and eliminates a number of inequalities due to conditions growing out of the depression when teachers suffered reductions in salary.

TEACHERS' SALARIES

♦ Bay City, Mich. Salary increases for teachers and janitors have been voted by the board of education. The increases range from \$50 to \$200 per year and will mean an additional outlay of \$26,000.

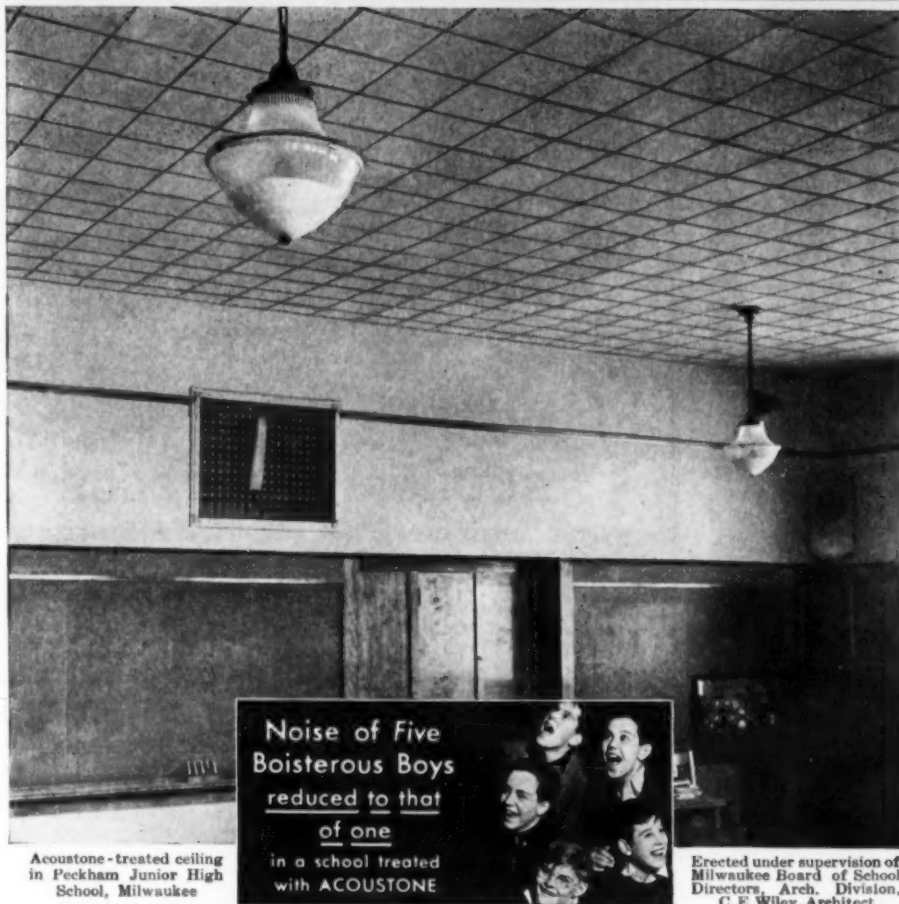
♦ St. Joseph, Mo. The school board has voted increases in salaries to teachers, supervisors, and school officials. The increases will reach a total of \$22,373 and will raise the salary of every teacher to at least 74 per cent of the amount in the schedule. Of the total amount in increases, \$11,420 is a flat raise for those teachers below the 74-per-cent mark. Teachers who have completed training in outside institutions since coming into the system will receive \$2,732, and under the program of gradual increases for experience, these instructors will receive \$7,729 more.

♦ Hartford, Conn. The local teachers' league is supporting the efforts of the board of education to obtain an appropriation of \$115,000 for putting into effect a new salary schedule based upon the Strayer recommendations.

♦ Jacksonville, Fla. The school board has included an item of \$1,282,930 in its budget for salaries of teachers and libraries during the next school year. The amount provided for a similar purpose last year was \$1,072,340.

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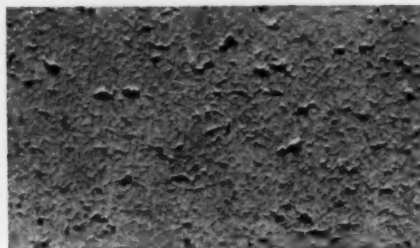
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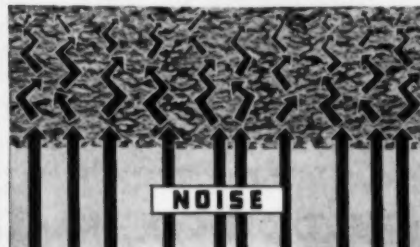
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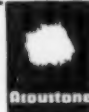
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Teachers' Salaries

♦ Fort Worth, Tex. One half of the salary reduction of five years ago has been restored to teachers by order of the board of education. The restoration will add about \$80,000 to the salary item.

♦ Shaker Heights, Ohio. The school board has given salary increases totaling \$51,846, or an average of \$300 a person, to 187 teachers on the school staff. Other employees, including maintenance and clerical workers, were given increases amounting to \$16,000.

♦ Champaign, Ill. The school board has voted to raise the minimum salary for elementary teachers from \$900 to \$1,000 per year. All employees receiving less than \$1,300 annually were given substantial increases in salary. The increases will raise the payroll expenditure by \$5,000.

♦ The City Council of Monroe, Georgia, has approved a school budget calling for an increase of nearly 10 per cent in the amount allotted to teachers' salaries. Increases have been planned under a schedule prepared by Superintendent L. D. Haskew. Since the school year of 1931-32 the Monroe board of education has increased the annual expenditures for teachers' salaries by nearly 50 per cent.

♦ Tampa, Fla. Approximately \$15,000 in salary supplements was recently distributed among principals, teachers, and secretaries in the school district. The supplements which are in addition to \$60,000 previously distributed, amount to \$20 for each member of the white school staff and \$11 for each Negro principal, teacher, and secretary.

♦ Raceland, Ky. The board of education has given 5-per-cent increases in salaries to teachers for the 1938 school year.

♦ Topeka, Kans. A 3-per-cent blanket increase

in the salaries of all teachers has been granted by the board of education for the next school year. The additional pay represents a partial restoration of two salary cuts made in 1931 and 1932.

♦ Atlanta, Ga. The Fulton County staff of teachers, numbering 625, will receive salary increases totaling \$110,000 in 1937-38, under action taken by the county board of education. The increases, coupled with the "tenth-month" pay previously authorized, gives the teachers a 22-per-cent increase. Funds for meeting the increases will come from a new one-half mill tax levy which is expected to produce \$135,000 annually.

The bulk of the increases will go to teachers in the elementary schools, and will tend to equalize these salaries with those of teachers in the high schools. Maximum salaries for elementary teachers with degrees are increased from \$1,300 to \$1,700; teachers with two-year college certificates, \$1,500; for three-year certificates, \$1,600. Maximum for elementary-school principals are raised from \$2,250 to \$2,500; for high-school teachers, \$2,100 to \$2,200; assistant principals, \$2,500 to \$2,700; and principals, \$3,000 to \$4,250.

♦ Beaumont, Tex. The proposed budget of the school board for the next school year will include provisions for teachers' salary increases of approximately 10 per cent.

♦ Burlingame, Calif. Teachers' salaries for the next year have been increased an average of 7 per cent. The increase brings the salaries to a point slightly above that prevailing in 1932. The minimum for the year has been set at \$1,380, and the maximum at \$1,980.

♦ Minneapolis, Minn. A downward revision of teachers' salary schedule will be effected during the next year, following the recent defeat of the 5-mill increase in the school tax-levy maximum. The school board has intimated that it will not be possible to meet the present salary schedules on the present tax levies. It is expected that the maximum for high-school teach-

ers will be reduced from \$2,800 to \$2,500 a year, and that of grade-school teachers from \$2,400 to \$2,100 a year.

♦ Cudahy, Wis. The school board has increased the instruction item of the school budget for next year from \$107,945 to \$115,975. The increase will provide salary increases of \$100 for all of the 66 teachers.

TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATION

♦ Chelsea, Mass. The school board has revised its rule governing the absence of teachers. Under the revised rule, it is provided that any teacher absent on account of illness for a period not exceeding one month in any school year, shall lose only such portion of his or her salary as would be paid to a substitute. Teachers who do not use the five days' allowance will be allowed to place it on an accumulative basis for a period not exceeding three consecutive years.

♦ The state education department of Kansas has issued new regulations for teachers, to become effective during the 1938 school year.

Under the rules, teachers holding first- and second-grade county certificates expiring during the next year, will be given elementary state certificates. First-grade certificates which expire after June 30, 1938, will be valid for their original term only.

Second-grade county certificates expiring with July, 1937, and July, 1938, will be replaced with state elementary certificates, which will be valid only until June 30, 1938.

It is expected that the state board will issue certificates for thirty hours' and sixty hours' college work.

First-grade certificates will be valid for three years, and second-grade certificates for two years.

♦ President Burt R. Shurly, of the Detroit board of education, recently said: "I am opposed to unionism among school teachers. They are trying to serve two masters—labor and the schools. If they try to do both, I personally do not favor their employment as teachers."

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School Administration News

AN EXAMINATION FOR SUPERINTENDENTS

The New York City board of superintendents in June, 1937, subjected candidates to two searching questions as the basis for appointment to an assistant superintendency. The applicants were required to answer the first question, and were permitted to select for discussion any one of the remaining nine questions:

I

The probationary period of teaching provides the best opportunities for evaluating the ability of new teachers, for instituting in-service training and for screening out the obviously unfit.

Indicate the program by which you as an assistant superintendent would discharge the responsibilities created by this condition.

II

"The administration of American public schools is developing as a co-operative service of administrators and teachers in which the latter are performing more and more important functions."

Discuss this quotation with reference to participation in the policies of the district and of the city by:

- a) Principals.
- b) Teachers.

III

"In the modern curriculum children are not denied access to truly educative experiences. It has been, and in too many cases still is, the practice of schools to center attention on assigning tasks for pupils to perform and on hearing lessons recited. This practice is in accord with an authoritarian concept. The modern curriculum opens opportunities for children to participate on a lifelike basis in a wide variety of activities, and to secure training under expert guidance which will function in life. This is the only way in which controls of conduct will be developed...."

"Supervisory activities must be altered so as to stim-

ulate this complex type of instructional program to the maximum of its potentiality."

Discuss the meaning of the above in light of the duties of an assistant superintendent in charge of a district having elementary, junior, high and vocational high schools.

IV

"The general purpose of guidance is to leave no socially useful talent of any pupil undiscovered and undeveloped and to insure society of the rightful contribution which should be made by every such talent."

Discuss the foregoing with reference to scope and outcomes of guidance in elementary and junior high schools.

V

State how you would proceed to discover the gifted pupils in your district and what you would do to help them develop in the direction of their special aptitudes.

VI

State what you would do as assistant superintendent to:

- a) Minimize discouragement on the part of pupils due to slow learning.
- b) Develop a willingness on the part of teachers to assist slow pupils.

VII

What means would you use to evaluate the work in two schools of your district differing widely in community background, economic standards and pupil intelligence?

VIII

State what you would do as assistant superintendent if you found the following conditions to exist in a school in your districts:

- a) Capable and willing teachers who carry the burden of outside activities while others do nothing.
- b) Unprogressive teachers.
- c) Bad manners on the part of pupils.
- d) Excessive lateness on the part of pupils.

IX

Present your views on supervision by an assistant superintendent with respect to the following aspects:

- a) Types of visitation.
- b) Relations with principals.
- c) Relations with teachers.
- d) Encouragement of individuality and initiative in teaching.

X

State how you would conduct conferences of principals in your districts. Show how you would organize a con-

ference or series of conferences on the topic "Teaching as Guidance" to arouse the greatest interest on the part of principals in the program.

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION NEWS

♦ Football has been abandoned as an interscholastic sport in the Monroe High School, Monroe, Georgia. The board of education in a public statement has made it clear that the step was taken in order that the time of the Director of Physical Education for Boys might be devoted entirely to the development of a city-wide system of intramural sports. Regular classes in physical education for both boys and girls have been added to the high school and grade curriculum and great emphasis is planned upon intramural athletics in the high school.

♦ The National Youth Administration's first school for farm youth on the NYA rolls has been in operation near Monroe, Georgia, for two months. Forty farm girls have begun an intensive three-month vocational-training program which will be intended to better equip them for farm life and to provide them with skills which may contribute to the family income.

Eighty boys arrived at the same school on July 1 for a similar short course along strictly vocational lines. While in school the boys and girls work on various projects half time, making it possible for them to pay for their board and have a little spending money.

The school is being operated through the co-operation of the Walton County Board of Education, the Georgia Vocational and Trades School, and the National Youth Administration of Georgia. If the experiment proves successful, other groups of young people will be enrolled in the school as those now in residence finish.

♦ Greensburg, Ind. Under new resolutions adopted by the school board, it has been decided that faculty meetings shall be held in each of the buildings at regular intervals. Teachers will be encouraged to visit at least once during the year the homes of the children under supervision

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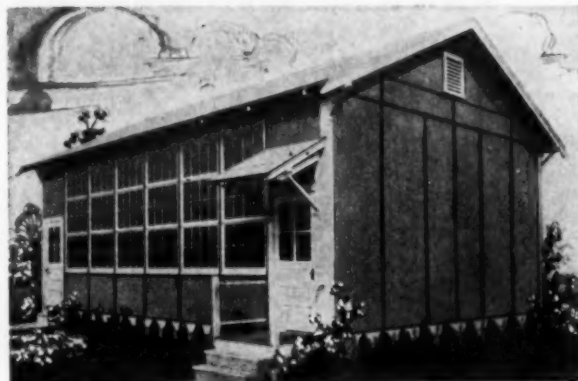
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and to discuss with the parents the child's progress in the school.

♦ Augusta, Ga. The school board has opened a six weeks' summer school in the junior college. The schedule includes a variety of subjects.

♦ Detroit, Mich. Summer schools are being conducted in the public schools for a period of eight weeks. Courses in practically all fields are being offered.

♦ Cheyenne, Wyo. A six-week summer school is being conducted in the junior high school. Classes are conducted for pupils who wish to make up work, and for remedial work. The tuition fees are \$10 for junior and senior high schools, and \$5 for elementary schools.

♦ North Wilbraham, Mass. The school board has adopted a new plan of organization and has voted to close three schools and transfer the pupils. The change has been made because of a reduction in enrollment.

♦ Worcester, Mass. Swedish has been authorized for the next term in the High School of Commerce, and Italian in the cultural course in the Classical High School. Demands have been made by residents that similar courses be arranged in Hebrew, Gaelic, and Polish languages.

♦ Dover, N. H. The school board has been asked to approve a new plan to control activities in the high school. The proposal calls for an amendment of the rules, definitely prohibiting high-school students from joining secret societies.

♦ The Palm Beach County board of education at West Palm Beach, Florida, has purchased nine school busses, at a cost of \$19,571. The purchases are steps in a program for consolidating bus routes, and for eliminating costly contracts for hauling pupils. A recent survey of the county indicates that \$10,000 can be saved annually by the operation of county-owned busses under a centralized plan of control.

♦ A community high-school district will be opened at Oswego (near Aurora), Illinois, as determined at a recent election. The major portion of the district is in Kendall County, and

the remainder in Will County. The district covers 69 square miles, has an assessed valuation of \$3,612,734, and maintains 21 grade schools.

♦ The school committee of Hudson, Massachusetts, has requested the state department to make a survey of the local school system with a view of determining upon the practicability of providing vocational training.

♦ The board of education of Morgan County, Tennessee, has voted to open the schools on August 4, in order to enable an early closing in the spring to enable the pupils to aid in farm work.

♦ LaGrange, Ind. The public schools have been reorganized on the six-six plan for the next school year.

♦ Battle Creek, Mich. The board of education conducted a six weeks' summer course for senior- and junior-high-school students. The fee for senior-high-school classes is \$5 for one course, and \$8 for two. In the junior high school, the fee is \$3 for one course, and \$5 for two courses.

♦ Frankton, Ind. A vocational-agriculture department has been established in the high school.

♦ Redford, Mich. The board of education conducted an eight weeks' summer school course in schools throughout the city. Classes were conducted in three 90-minute periods and the courses covered practically all fields. In the elementary schools, courses were offered to pupils in the fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth grades. Play hobby classes were conducted for pupils in grades one to eight.

♦ The Minneapolis board of education has fixed the allotments of pupil supplies for 1937-38 at 50 cents per pupil for senior high schools, 35 cents for junior high schools, and 30 cents for elementary schools.

♦ A Middle Western city maintains two high schools because of an agreement made many years ago that, when a certain district was annexed to the city, a high school should always be maintained there. The second high school involves a costly duplication of plant and wholly

unnecessary expense for administration and instruction. With the exception of a few children, the high school on the east side of the town is within walking distance of the residential areas.

♦ Quincy, Mass. The school board has voted to retain its rule, barring the free use of school buildings to outside organizations. The board has adopted a rule, permitting the use of the school hall upon the payment of a rental fee of \$7.50.

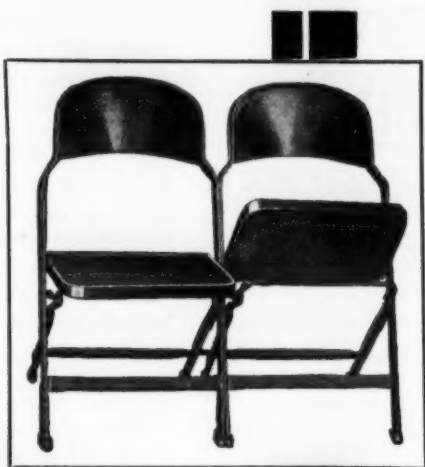
♦ Mattoon, Ill. The school board has completed plans for a textbook-modernization program for the elementary and junior high schools. Under the plan, all students will rent their textbooks for a flat sum of from \$1. to \$1.50 per year. The plan is expected to result in a substantial saving to parents of pupils.

APPOINTMENT PERMANENT SECRETARY

A distinct step forward has been taken by the Pennsylvania State School Directors' Association in the appointment of Mr. Preston O. Van Ness as full-time executive secretary of the Association, with offices in Harrisburg. Action toward the employment of a secretary was taken at the annual meeting last winter but the actual election was delayed until very recently. Mr. Van Ness, who will assume his position on September 1, will be general manager of the Association and in addition will (a) assist visiting school boards on official business in Harrisburg, (b) act as legislative contact man of the Association, and (c) continue the Association's campaign for members.

Mr. Van Ness has been assistant director of business administration in the Pennsylvania State Department of Education and as such has had state-wide and personal contact with the school boards of the state. President Herbert J. Stockton, of Johnstown, and other officials of the Association, hold that Mr. Van Ness's appointment foreshadows a new period of influence, solidarity, and helpfulness on the part of the Association.

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BETTERING SCHOOL MAINTENANCE BY ACCOUNTING

(Concluded from page 40)

inate unnecessary outlay of public funds, make automatic the compilation of budgetary estimates for this type of work, and improve the relationship between the business department and the individual schools by insuring an equitable distribution of repair expenditures, having due regard for the needs of the school plant as a whole. It would further tend toward efficiency in the maintenance department by allowing a more efficient programming of the work to be performed.

The desirability of such a procedure is indicated in a recent publication of the American Council of Education, *Research Problems in School Finance* in which it is stated that the "school building program must be planned in terms of decades rather than single years if mistakes and waste are to be avoided and the largest return in usable school plants is to be obtained." The authors also indicate that two of the most important problems for research in the field of maintenance are:

1. What is the relationship between the original cost of a school building and the cost of its maintenance?
2. What steps are various schools and school systems taking to ascertain the need and the degree of need of repairs to school property? What steps should be taken in different types of schools and school systems.

The problem of furnishing the physical plant which, according to reports of the U. S. Commission of Education, involves expenditures averaging approximately one fourth of the total expenditures for education, necessitates consideration of not only first cost but also of depreciation and maintenance which are all so closely interwoven that they must be considered in

conjunction with each other if ultimate economy is to be achieved.

Research studies in the field of education have been confined almost entirely to teaching problems and practically no definite information is available regarding the physical plant. At the present time there is a definite need for research in the entire field of furnishing school plants particularly with reference to the maintenance of the plant.

The taxpaying public is entitled to receive the maximum return in service for every dollar expended in the school plant, and this can only be achieved if officials in charge accumulate adequate information from which they can develop proper policies and practices.

IMPORTANT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

How Profitable Is Big Business?

By Alfred L. Bernheim, Estelle Schrifte, Rufus S. Tucker, and Margaret Grant Schneider. Cloth, 201 pages. Price, \$2. Published by Twentieth Century Fund, New York, N. Y.

This book will unquestionably dispel some of the misconceptions which are held in connection with large enterprises and the profits they are supposed to make. It is the result of a two years' study engaged in by independent economists. Their findings are to the effect that big business is as susceptible to business variations as are small enterprises, that they are neither sure winners nor certain losers. Again, that small corporations are more profitable in relation to their capital than are the big corporations.

The educator who has a tendency to a drift to the left will find the fourteen chapters which enter into every phase of corporate control of industrial, commercial, and financial enterprises, quite illuminating.

An Evaluation of Courses in Education of a State Teachers' College by Teachers in Service

By Roscoe G. Linder. Cloth, 155 pages. Price, \$1.85. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, New York, N. Y.

This doctoral dissertation takes up these six criticisms of teachers' colleges: (1) waste of time due to duplication of topics; (2) lack of functional value in theoretical and historical material; (3) formal college approach to courses which decreases their interest and direct value; (4) too small range of electives in favor of required edu-

cational courses; (5) lack of agreement between titles of courses and content; (6) lack of attention to broadening and cultural courses. For the college studied, the author finds the criticisms largely unfounded. He urges improvements in courses to eliminate extreme duplication, cooperation between departments and instructors to insure proper emphasis, greater practice-teaching opportunity, the creation of better professional backgrounds through philosophic and historical approach to all subjects in the course, etc.

Salaries Paid Teachers 1936-37 in Cities 2,500 to 30,000 Population

June, 1937, Bulletin, Research Division, National Education Association, Washington, D. C.

This bulletin summarizes the salaries paid teachers in 1,597 cities within the groups mentioned in the title to the bulletin. It makes clear the following general facts:

1937 Salaries in Cities of 10,000 to 30,000 Population

| | Arithmetical Mean | Median |
|-------------------------|-------------------|--------|
| Elementary-Kindergarten | \$1331 | \$1297 |
| Junior High Schools | 1510 | 1456 |
| High Schools | 1724 | 1668 |

1937 Salaries in Cities of 5,000 to 10,000 Population

| | Arithmetical Mean | Median |
|-------------------------|-------------------|--------|
| Elementary-Kindergarten | \$1206 | \$1150 |
| Junior High Schools | 1398 | 1330 |
| High Schools | 1552 | 1490 |

1937 Salaries in Cities of 2,500 to 5,000 Population

| | Arithmetical Mean | Median |
|-------------------------|-------------------|--------|
| Elementary-Kindergarten | \$1071 | \$1008 |
| Junior High Schools | 1240 | 1183 |
| High Schools | 1382 | 1316 |

The study makes clear that while salaries have not reached the highs of 1931, there have been considerable increases over the salaries paid in 1935.

Evaluative Criteria

One of a series of studies in The Co-operative Study of Secondary-School Standards. By Walter Crosby Eells, co-ordinator. Issued by the American Association of School Administrators, Washington, D. C.

This pamphlet, one of a series of fourteen pamphlets on the subject of Secondary-School Standards, includes extensive checklists, criteria, and statements of principles. The pamphlet takes up such phases of the subject as the educational program, the school staff, the school plant, and school administration. The contents stress philosophy, purposes, and objectives of education.

It is expected that the criteria, which is as yet only in tentative form, will be revised and enlarged as a result of the constructive criticisms and suggestions of high-school principals and interested students of secondary education.

"Shall Cause the Child to Attend School"

(Concluded from page 33)

excuse." *London School Board vs. Duggan*, 13 Q.B.D. 176.

The withdrawal from school of a child, on the other hand, to give it instruction privately in a single subject, such as music, is a violation of the statute. "The words 'under efficient instruction in some other manner' mean that the whole instruction of the child is being given in some other manner." *Osborne vs. Martin*, 28 Cox C.C. 465.

Health Problems and Attendance

The law is not satisfied if the child is kept from school because of the parent's objection to a reasonable health regulation, but it is otherwise where the order is unreasonable and the parents' objection well grounded. In the case of *Bowen vs. Hodson*, 93 Law Journal K.B. 76, Hodson's child was absent from school because of ring-worm infection. After recovery she was sent to the school but was refused admittance until after the school dermatologist examined her at his clinic. Hodson refused to comply:

He objected to the child going to the clinic established for the treatment of children suffering from infectious skin diseases, because he believed she might be exposed there to the danger of reinfection. That may or may not have been a wise thing, but I think it was evidence upon which the justices could find that he had a reasonable excuse. . . . This appeal must be dismissed. See also *Fox vs. Burgess*, 1922 1K.B. 623.

If a child is excluded from school because of a verminous condition, it is not prevented from attending school by an unavoidable cause and thus keep the statute from operating. "If a parent sends a child in such condition that the child will be refused admission, the fact that the child is refused admission does not amount to the child's being prevented from attending school by an unavoidable cause." *Walker vs. Cummings*, 23 Cox C.C. 157.

When a pupil finishes the grade-school course in less time than the compulsory-attendance period, and public school courses in high school are available, the parent is obligated to compel attendance at high school. *Miller vs. State*, 77 Ind. App. 611. The Indiana supreme court in passing on a similar case said: The statutes do not invade the right of a parent to "govern and control his own children, and they (such statutes) are to be given a reasonable interpretation to the end that the best interests of the child and the state alike may be served." *State vs. O'Dell*, 187 Ind. 84.

Most of the statutes, among reasonable excuses for nonattendance, provide that a child living farther than a certain distance shall not be compelled to attend school unless transportation is afforded. The distance mentioned is usually two miles, but

is to be measured by the nearest road. In *Hares vs. Curtin*, the court said: "In my opinion the word 'road' in this bylaw is not confined to highways or to roads constructed for the purpose of carrying every class of traffic. It does not mean a road of any particular class, but simply a route from the residence of the child to the nearest school." 1913, 2 K.B. 328.

Aside from these mentioned, many questions relative to the effect of the compulsory-attendance statute on private instruction and parochial schools arose.

Attendance of the pupil at a private or parochial school is a compliance with a statute which compels parents or guardians to send their children within the statutory age limit to a public or private school. *State vs. Will*, 99 Kan. 167.

Private Schools

In this country in maintaining as liberal a policy as possible the courts have held that attendance at an unapproved private school is sufficient compliance:

If the person having a child under his control, instead of sending him to a public school or to a private day school approved by the committee, prefers to have him instructed otherwise, it will be incumbent upon him to show that the child has been instructed for the specified period in the required branches of learning, unless the child has already acquired them. This permits instruction in those branches in school or academies situated in the same city or town, or elsewhere, or instruction by a private tutor or governess, or by the parents themselves, provided it is given in good faith and is sufficient in extent. *Commonwealth vs. Roberts*, 1893, 159 Mass. 372.

However, if the statute specifically states that the child must attend a public school or an approved private school, attendance at an unapproved private school is not compliance. *State vs. Hoyt*, 146 Atl. 170.

A parent who has his child instructed by a legally qualified governess or private teacher in his home has exempted himself from the operation of the statute:

A school, in the ordinary acceptance of its meaning, is a place where instruction is imparted to the young. If a parent employs and brings into his residence a teacher for the purpose of instructing his child or children, and such instruction is given as the law contemplates, the meaning and spirit of the law has been fully complied with. This would be the school of the child or children so educated, and would be as much a private school as if advertised and conducted as such. We do not think that the number of persons, whether one or many, makes a place where instruction is imparted any less or more a school. *State vs. Peterman*, 32 Ind. App. 665.

Nor is it necessary, before the prosecution of a person can be dismissed, that it be decided that the instruction being given the child is as efficient as that given by the public school or that it measure up to the standard set by the board of education. *Bevan vs. Shears*, 1911, 2 K.B. 936. American courts have looked at the prob-

lem a little differently. In this country, home instruction by the mother is not a compliance with a compulsory-attendance statute permitting instruction in a private school. *State vs. Counort*, 69 Wash. 361. Nor is it compliance to have children taught by a private tutor satisfactory to the county or district superintendent of schools. *Commonwealth vs. Gillen*, 25 Pa. Dist. 401. Although, under a statute permitting training other than public or private schools the mother may teach the children in the required branches if it is shown that she is competent as a teacher. *Wright vs. State*, 21 Okla. Cr. 430.

In dealing with attendance statutes, the courts have been held to a strict interpretation because the laws are penal; but it is evident from a survey of the decisions that the child's welfare has been foremost. The courts have tried to see what the child needed, what was best for society and at the same time consider the exigencies of each case from the point of view of the parents.

STOKERS ECONOMIZE FOR ROCKFORD SCHOOLS

(Concluded from page 36)

less of room temperatures, the stoker is shut off automatically whenever steam pressure in the boiler gets to seven pounds.

Several of our buildings were never heated adequately under the old hand-firing system. The increased efficiency and improved combustion effected by stokers, however, has eliminated these troubles. During 20-degrees-below-zero weather early in 1936, it was not necessary to close a single Rockford school for lack of adequate heat, but in many near-by cities classes were suspended. A majority of our buildings have the split system of heating, combining direct radiation with hot air. This is deemed essential to health and comfort and we are changing other buildings from the hot-blast to split system as rapidly as possible.

From the janitor's viewpoint, stokers are a great boon. Removal of clinkers is made much easier. Stokers feed the coal upward through a retort in the center of the firebox and clinkers are pushed to the top and sides of the fire. Instead of being compelled to pull these troublesome clinkers through the bottom of the firebox, the janitor lifts them out of the interior with hooks and lays them aside to cool. It is much easier to keep the boiler room clean with a stoker.

Spikes and similar foreign objects sometimes found in the coal are of no serious trouble. Should a spike get into the coal-feed shaft of the stoker, jamming its action, a shear pin breaks off, stopping the stoker until the spike can be removed. Merely by replacing the shear pin, a simple task, the janitor restores the stoker to action.

♦ Work has begun on a new high-school building in Monroe, Georgia. The building is planned to accommodate 350 students, and will cost approximately \$75,000 to build and equip.

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THE AMERICAN STATE UNIVERSITY

(Concluded from page 32)

judged." The object is the fullest and free development of human personality in unilateral self-expression, and not the confusion of personality and individuality. "The direction proposed by humanism has now been amply indicated: it is the development of free human beings, with all that that implies, through thoughtful assimilation of 'what is best in the past

and present,' both in the sciences and in the humanities."

In short, the key to educational reform on the college and university level is in the college of liberal arts. The education of men and women must be a liberal education. What is needed is a revival of liberal education—and such a revival requires as an accompaniment, a Christian revival.

BUILDING NEWS

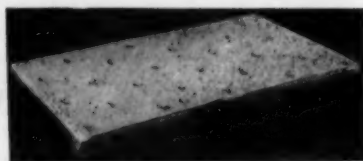
♦ Madison, Wis. Supt. R. W. Bardwell, in a report to the school board, has recommended a

school-building program, to provide for the erection of three elementary schools, at a cost of \$700,000.

♦ Green Bay, Wis. The school board has received the architects' preliminary plans for three new schools, to cost approximately \$780,000. The program calls for two grade schools and a junior high school. The buildings will be erected from plans of Foeller, Schober, and Berns, architects, of Green Bay.

♦ Cincinnati, Ohio. The school board has received notice that eight school-building projects of the city have been placed on the preferred list of PWA grants. The school program includes two junior high schools, three grade schools, a vocational school, and additions to two high schools.

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The Enoch Pratt Free Library, Baltimore, Maryland, is very anxious to complete its file of AMERICAN SCHOOL BOARD JOURNAL and solicits offers of Vols. 1-46, 48 (1891-1912, 1913-1914).

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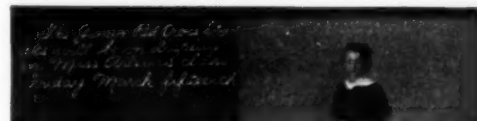
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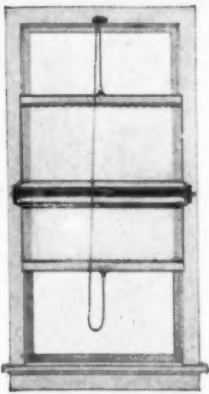
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THE ELECTION

(Concluded from page 18)

"Have you worked your whole way through school?" asked Criss.

"Entirely, with what I saved from those two years of teaching."

"Folks live in town or on a farm?"

"Farm."

"What do you expect to get?" asked Warner.

"A fair salary; hadn't thought so much of that yet," Thompson replied slowly. He didn't like to name a figure, nor did he wish to appear too anxious.

"Married? Or going to be soon?" asked Criss, with a smile.

"I'm not married," returned Thompson. "And as far as I know, not going to be soon. But I've heard that's a disease one catches unexpectedly sometimes."

"That's right," said Merritt.

Following which there was a period of silence as the six men regarded him; again he wondered whether he had said the right or the wrong thing. They had not elected, he was certain, else they would not have bothered to question him.

"I brought along some papers showing my credits and a few recommendations," he said. "They're in the car; if you'd like to see them I'll get them."

"Well, they won't hurt anything," said Merritt. "But we don't go much on paper recommendations."

At a loss to know whether they wished to see his papers or not, Thompson smiled, hesitated a second, and then left the room to get them.

There was no word spoken until the door closed.

"Seems all right," observed Ransom.

"That's what I thought," admitted Criss.

"I like his looks and he seems a hard worker," declared Merritt.

Followed another pause, then Anderson spoke up:

"I move we elect him superintendent."

"Second the motion," said Brown.

"All in favor of the motion hold up their hands," said Merritt.

Three hands shot up at once — Anderson's, Brown's, and Criss's; then Ransom and Warner, seeing the trend, slowly raised theirs, and Merritt made it unanimous.

Thus was Ben Thompson elected superintendent of the Auburn schools.

Editor's Note: A further adventure of young Superintendent Thompson will be published in the *Journal* for October.

SIZE AND TENURE OF SCHOOL BOARDS

(Concluded from page 50)

ment or election may succeed in establishing a public-spirited and statesmanlike board. Either of these methods may result in the selection of a board which is utterly unsuited to discharge the high social responsibility entrusted to it. The problem here is not so much one of machinery as it is of community tradition and spirit. Other things being equal, however, it appears that the weight of preference leans toward the elected board, chosen on a nonpartisan basis at a special school election.

In three fourths of the cities in both groups the school-board members are chosen by popular vote. In 20 of the larger cities the board members are appointed. In 12 cities the mayor appoints; in 1 city the mayor and council appoint; in 4 cities the judges appoint; and in 3 cities the city council appoints.

Where the elective plan prevails the school-board members are chosen at general elections in 41 cities, and at special school elections in 13 cities. Here the elections are held in the spring months from March to June. In 40 cities elections are held every 2 years, and in 11 cities every year.

In discussing the type of election recognized the report says:

"Although the authorities who favor election of school-board members agree on the desirability of a special school election, as far removed as possible from partisan politics, the more common practice is to choose members of the school board at general elections, along with other officers of government. The special election is used in 23.7 per cent of the Group I cities and in 39.8 per cent of the Group II cities. Three cities alternate between general and special elections.

"Special school elections usually are held in March, April, or May. By setting a time as far removed as possible from the customary period of political campaigning, the danger of embroiling school candidates in such campaigns is reduced.

"In the 143 cities where a nonpartisan ballot is used in the school election, nominations for the school board are typically made by petitions signed by a specified number of qualified voters of the school district. Primary elections on a nonpartisan basis and individual announcement of candidacy are also reported. Three replies mention an unofficial 'citizens' committee' which prepares a ballot for the school board; this practice, of course, does not preclude the filing of other nominations. The nominations by mass meetings and by civic clubs, mentioned for three cities, represent other efforts to secure well-qualified persons for membership on school boards."

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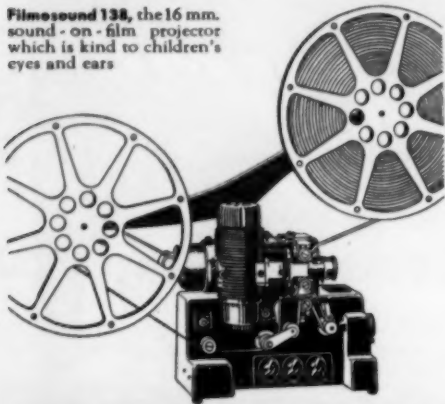
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After The Meeting

STORIES FOR SPEECHMAKERS

His Goal

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"Whatever the outcome of the trial," said the defendant, "I am certain that this experience will make me a better man."

"In what way?" asked the judge.

"In striving to live up to the speech made by my counsel," was the reply. — Louisville Courier.

Also an Artist

A group of professional men had gathered in the lobby of a summer hotel, and proceeded to make themselves known to one another.

"My name is Johnson," said one. "I'm a painter—work in water colors chiefly."

"Indeed," chimed in another, "I'm an artist too. I work in bronze."

"Well this is fine," a third one broke in. "I'm a sculptor—I work in stone."

Finally the quiet man said with a grin, "I'm not sure that I qualify in this company of artists. But I do sometimes work in ivory. I'm a college professor."

What He Was

Teacher: "Now, Tommy, what is a thief?"

Tommy: "I dunno."

Teacher: "If I put my hand in your pocket and took out a dime, what would I be?"

Tommy: "A magician, ma'm, because I've got only a nickel there."

A Good Imitation

The class in public speaking was to give pantomimes that afternoon. One frosh got up when called on, went to the platform, and stood perfectly still.

"Well," said the Prof after a minute's wait for something to happen. "What do you represent?"

"I'm imitating a man going up in an elevator," was the quick response. — Illinois Guardsman.

Young Hopeful

Vernon: "Gran'ma, if I was invited out to dinner somewhere, should I eat my pie with a fork?"

Grandma: "Certainly, Vernon."

Vernon: "You haven't got a piece of pie about the house that I could practice on, have you, Gran'ma?"

To Become a Linguist

"My brother is taking up French, Scotch, Swedish, Hebrew, and Italian."

"My word, where does he study?"

"Study? He doesn't study, he runs an elevator."

Explanation Needed

Professor (during lecture time): "Now you all know what a molecule is—"

Highbrow Student (interrupting): "Most of us do. But perhaps, for the benefit of those who have never been up in one, you'd better explain." — Think.



The Thinker

She: Why do so many women rest their chins on their hands when they are thinking?

He: To keep their mouths shut so that they won't disturb themselves.

School Building News

A Laboratory Furniture Catalog. There was a time when school laboratories were fitted with ordinary kitchen tables and chairs and when the instructor had a so-called experiment table planned by himself and executed by a local carpenter. Happily those days are far in the past and the modern school laboratory is equipped with furniture and utilities in the design of which the teacher of science, the school executive, the school architect, and the special designer employed by the manufacturer of laboratory furniture have all combined to provide articles of maximum durability, of low cost, of beauty, and of the highest type of instructional value. Thus science tables for physics, chemistry, biology, domestic science, sewing, etc., represent the results of intensive research, years of experience in education, etc. In other words, the built-up knowledge of generations of specialists are combined in each model offered by a firm like Leonard Peterson & Company in their new catalog No. 20.

Mr. Leonard Peterson and his associates have specialized in laboratory equipment for upwards of 40 years. The specialization has been entirely in the direction of educational service and a reasonable price. The firm has also manufactured complete lines of cafeteria tables, sewing room equipment, drafting and art tables, manual training benches, and library furniture. The catalog which is comprehensive, will be sent to any school official on request addressed to 1222 Fullerton Avenue, Chicago, Ill.

Robertson Issues New Cleanliness Catalog. Theo. B. Robertson Products Company, Inc., 700 West Division St., Chicago, Ill., has just issued its new catalog No. 137, describing its complete line of cleaning materials, including soaps, cleansers, disinfectants, brushes, and sanitary supplies.

The Robertson Company has been in existence since 1901 when it began the manufacture of "blue soap." From this small beginning the business grew rapidly, and in later years new products were added. In 1919 a brush factory was established, specializing the manufacture of high-grade, hand-made floor brushes, and a general line of cleaning brushes. The Robertson products have enjoyed a wide reputation and are now being sold from coast to coast.

Issue New Vestal Catalog. The new Manual and Handy Reference Guide to Building Maintenance, just issued by the Vestal Chemical Laboratories, Inc., 4963 Manchester Ave., St. Louis, Mo., contains 36 pages of descriptive material covering soaps, cleaners, deodorants, disin-



New Vestal Catalog

fectants, floor finishes, and floor-maintenance products.

An interesting and instructive feature of the catalog is the discussion of the problem for each group of products listed. For instance, the introduction to floor seals is an article illustrated with photomicrographs of wood floor pores. A copy of the booklet will be sent to any school official who requests it.

TRADE NEWS

All-Steel-Equip Announces New Locker. If you are looking for a maximum amount of storage in a limited floor space, the All-Steel-Equip Company of Aurora, Ill., has just put on the market its new locker called the S-A-E Unit-Robe. It will accommodate sixteen persons



New Space Saving Locker

in approximately one-half square foot of floor space per person. The units are 12 by 12 by 18 in. assembled in two vertical columns of six, connected across the top by a horizontal section of four under which is a coat-hanger rod for outer garments. The sections may be ganged in single or double rows. The louvers in each door allow for ample ventilation. The "torpedo-type," tamper-proof hinges and the free space below allow for easy cleaning all around. This S-A-E Unit-Robe is just the thing for small shop and gymnasium locker rooms.

Heywood-Wakefield Company Honors Veteran Employees

A most unusual gathering was held by the Heywood-Wakefield Company, Gardner, Mass., the oldest firm in the country, when it staged a reception and banquet on June 17, for some 420 employees who had been with the firm for ten years or more. The reception was called "Old Timer's Night" and was intended to honor employees of the plant with the longest service records. Among these are Charles A. Cowee, with 67 years' service to his credit, William H. Smith with 65 years, and Lizzie Carroll with 46 years of continuous employment. A total of 418 employees have seen more than a decade of service.

High executives and simple workers were included among the guests, each of whom received a gold and silver service pin, on which was inscribed the term of service, and a personal letter from President Richard N. Greenwood.

Metal Blackboard Framing. Blackboards are as old as the American school system. However, something new and distinctly modern for framing blackboards has been developed by the New York Silicate Book Slate Co., who are the oldest manufacturers of artificial slating in the United States. The material is Neatsnap Extruded Aluminum Blackboard Framing consisting of an assembly of chalk tray and side and top moldings. The framing is fitted with continuous steel grounds. All exposed parts are made of the finest grade aluminum, which need not be painted and which preserves its sheen indefinitely. The framing is so manufactured that the blackboard will never come loose as the result of shrinkage or tendency to warp.

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from the manufacturers, New York Silicate Book Slate Co., Inc., 20 Vesey Street, New York City.

COMING CONVENTIONS

August 27-28. American Federation of Teachers, at Madison, Wis. Irwin Kuenzli, Chicago, Ill., secretary.

September 26-28. New York State Council of Superintendents, at Saranac Inn. E. L. Ackley, Johnstown, secretary.

October 7-9. Vermont Teachers' Association, at Rutland. Miss Marion C. Parkhurst, Burlington, secretary.

October 7-9. Wisconsin Library Association, at Milwaukee. Miss B. Buelow, LaCrosse, secretary.

October 7-9. Vermont Teachers' Association, at Rutland. Miss Marion C. Parkhurst, Burlington, secretary.

October 8. Pennsylvania Education Association (northwest district), at Meadville. J. C. Prindle, Cambridge Springs, secretary.

October 14-15. Missouri Central Teachers' Association, at Warrensburg. Fred W. Urbar, Warrensburg, secretary.

October 14-16. Western Pennsylvania Education Association, at Pittsburgh. A. M. Goldberger, Pittsburgh, secretary.

October 14-15. Northeast Division of Minnesota Education Association, at Hibbing. Anna E. Regner, Mountain Iron, secretary.

October 16. Massachusetts Teachers' Federation, at Worcester. Hugh Nixon, Boston, secretary.

October 21-22. Indiana Teachers' Association, at Indianapolis. C. O. Williams, Indianapolis, secretary.

October 21-22. Minnesota Educational Association (central division), at St. Cloud. E. B. Lund, St. Paul, secretary.

October 21-22. New Hampshire Teachers' Association, at Nashua. John W. Condon, Derry, secretary.

October 21-22. Central division of Minnesota Education Association, at St. Cloud. C. B. Lund, St. Paul, secretary; northern division, at Bemidji. A. C. Clark, Bemidji, secretary; southeast division, at Winona. A. T. French, Winona, secretary; southwest division, at Mankato. Ruth Drake, Mankato, secretary; western division, at Moorhead. C. P. Archer, Moorhead, secretary.

October 21-23. Utah Education Association, at Salt Lake City. B. A. Fowler, Salt Lake City, secretary.

October 22. New York Teachers' Association (central zone), at Syracuse. Janet W. James, Syracuse, secretary.

October 25-26. Maryland Teachers' Association, at Baltimore. Walter H. Davis, Havre de Grace, secretary.

October 27-29. North Dakota Education Association, at Minot. M. E. McCurdy, Fargo, secretary.

ADVERTISERS' INDEX

| | | | | | |
|--|--------|--|-----------|---|-----------|
| Albert Teachers' Agency..... | 84 | Everwear Mfg. Company..... | 80 | Peterson & Co., Leonard..... | 68 |
| All-Steel-Equip. Co., Inc..... | 11 | Finnell System, Inc..... | 6 | Powers Regulator Co..... | 10 |
| American Crayon Co..... | 69 | Fisk Teachers' Agency..... | 84 | Potter Manufacturing Corp..... | 84 |
| American Seating Company..... | 13 | Ford Company, The J. B..... | 88 | Premier Engraving Company..... | 80 |
| American Type Founders Sales Corp..... | 71 | Goodyear Tire & Rubber Co., The..... | 59 | Remington-Rand, Inc..... | 16 |
| Architects Directory..... | 83 | Hamilton-Invincible, Inc..... | 81 | Rowles Co., E. W. A..... | 85 |
| Arlington Seating Company..... | 77 | Hart Manufacturing Company..... | 84 | Royal Metal Mfg. Company..... | 69 |
| Armstrong Cork Products Company..... | 61 | Holden Patent Book Cover Co..... | 65 | Rundle-Spence Mfg. Co..... | 6 |
| Bassick Company, The..... | 79 | Huntington Laboratories..... | 73 | Sanford Mfg. Company..... | 84 |
| Bausch & Lomb Optical Company..... | 57 | Illinois Iron & Bolt Co..... | 10 | Schermerhorn Teachers' Agency..... | 84 |
| Beck Studios..... | 84 | Irwin Seating Company..... | 71 | Sedgwick Machine Works..... | 79 |
| Beckley-Cardy Company..... | 72 | Johnson Service Company..... | 2nd Cover | Sengbusch Self-Closing Inkstand Co..... | 80 |
| Bell and Howell..... | 86 | K-M Supply Corporation..... | 80 | Sheldon & Company, E. H..... | 76 |
| Binney & Smith..... | 70 | Kewaunee Mfg. Company..... | 63 | Sloan Valve Company..... | 9 |
| Boehm Bindery, The..... | 84 | Kimball Company, W. W..... | 71 | Solar-Sturges Mfg. Co..... | 8 |
| Bruce Publishing Company, The..... | 2 & 64 | Kundtz Company, The Theodor..... | 11 | Sonneborn Sons, Inc., L..... | 4th Cover |
| Carbon Solvents Laboratories..... | 84 | Lyon Metal Products, Inc..... | 67 | Spencer Turbine Company..... | 10 |
| Celotex Company, The..... | 3 | Maple Flooring Manufacturers Assn..... | 1 | Squires Inkwell Company..... | 76 |
| Christiansen Co., The..... | 80 | Market Place..... | 84 | Standard Electric Time Co., The..... | 62 |
| Church Mfg. Co., C. F..... | 8 | Medart Mfg. Co., Fred..... | 2 | Taylor Company, Halsey W..... | 79 |
| Clarín Manufacturing Co..... | 81 | Miller Keyless Lock Co., J. B..... | 80 | Tiffin Scenic Studios..... | 84 |
| Colgate-Palmolive-Peet Co..... | 7 | Minneapolis-Honeywell Regulator Co..... | 3rd Cover | Trane Company, The..... | 5 |
| Columbia School Furniture Corp..... | 84 | Minter Homes Corp..... | 78 | Twin City Scenic Company..... | 84 |
| Cotta Transmission Corp..... | 4 | National School Supplies & Equip. Ass'n..... | 12 | Universal Scenic Studio..... | 84 |
| Dayton Safety Ladder Co..... | 10 | National Vulcanized Fibre Co..... | 79 | U. S. Gypsum Company..... | 75 |
| Dettra Flag Company, Inc..... | 78 | Natural Slate Blackboard Co..... | 66 | Vestal Chemical Company..... | 8 |
| Draper Shade Co., Luther O..... | 13 | Nesbitt, Inc., John J..... | 14 | Victor Animatograph Corp..... | 85 |
| Dudfield Mfg. Company..... | 84 | Newcastle Products, Inc..... | 80 | Webster Company, The..... | 77 |
| Dunham & Company, C. A..... | 4 | Nystrom, A. J..... | 69 | Wolkins Company, Henry S..... | 94 |
| Durabilt Steel Locker Company..... | 13 | Peabody Seating Company, The..... | 60 | Wood Conversion Company..... | 4 |
| Enoch Pratt Free Library..... | 84 | Peterson & Company..... | 84 | Yale & Towne Mfg. Co..... | 11 |
| Evans, W. L..... | 6 | | | | |

The Superintendent of Buildings Looks Ahead

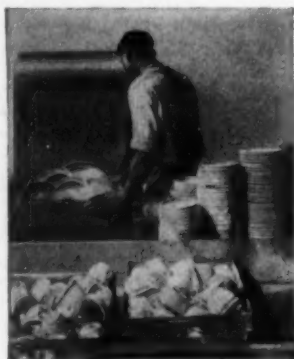
Sanitary Cleanliness less dependent on skill of individuals—when we use Wyandotte Cleaners—and Steri-Chlor.



As difficulties increase in maintaining regular forces of trained employees, our head janitors find the Wyandotte Extra Margin of Protection to be of increasing value. For example

The cleaning of painted and enameled walls and woodwork, school furniture,

and the other surfaces requiring periodic cleaning, can be safely entrusted to inexperienced help — with Wyandotte Detergent as the cleaning material. It cleans fast without scratching, rinses easily, leaving no smelly, dust-catching films. And pound for pound it does much more cleaning.



In the Cafeteria

Removing scale from mechanical dish and glass washers used to be a nuisance job—before we began using Wyandotte “Keego” Cleaner. Now we have no more scale. No stained dishes—no cloudy glasses. We use “Keego” for washing pots, pans and dishes by hand, too—as it is harmless both to metals and the hands. It’s a real convenience to do all these things with but one cleaning material.

Disinfecting - Deodorizing

A powerful destroyer of germs and odors is a most useful product in any school. We use Wyandotte Steri-Chlor on gymnasium equipment, dishes and glasses, lavatories—and to

prevent musty odors from old floors and wainscoting, making our solutions as we need them. Steri-Chlor is convenient, effective and very economical.

Wyandotte Steri-Chlor keeps indefinitely in dry form.
Makes a clear solution. 25-50-100 lb. Plywood Drums.



THE J. B. FORD COMPANY

WYANDOTTE,
MICHIGAN

*A Wyandotte dealer—and a factory Service Representative
are in your Vicinity. Always at your Service.*